INTERSTATE MIGRATION

HEARINGS

BEFORE THE

SELECT COMMITTEE TO INVESTIGATE THE INTERSTATE MIGRATION OF DESTITUTE CITIZENS HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

SEVENTY-SIXTH CONGRESS

THIRD SESSION

PURSUANT TO

H. Res. 63 and H. Res. 491

RESOLUTIONS TO INQUIRE INTO THE INTERSTATE MIGRATION OF DESTITUTE CITIZENS, TO STUDY, SURVEY, AND INVESTIGATE THE SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC NEEDS, AND THE MOVEMENT OF INDIGENT PERSONS ACROSS STATE LINES

PART 4

LINCOLN HEARINGS

SEPTEMBER 16, 17, 1941

Printed for the use of the Select Committee to Investigate the Interstate Migration of Destitute Citizens

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SELECT COMMITTEE TO INVESTIGATE THE INTERSTATE MIGRATION OF DESTITUTE CITIZENS

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INTERSTATE MIGRATION

MONDAY, SEPTEMBER 16, 1940

House of Representatives,
Select Committee to Investigate the
Interstate Migration of Destitute Citizens,
Washington, D. C.

The hearing was convened at 9 a. m., in Courtroom No. 2 in the State Capitol Building at Lincoln, Nebr. Present were Congressman John H. Tolan, California, chairman; Congressman Claude V. Parsons, Illinois, vice chairman; and Congressman Carl T. Curtis, Nebraska. Congressman John J. Sparkman, Alabama, and Congressman Frank C. Osmers, Jr., New Jersey, were unavoidably detained.

Also present were Dr. Robert K. Lamb, chief investigator; A. Kramer, chief field investigator; Ariel V. E. Dunn, field investigator; Joseph N. Dotson, field investigator; Robert H. Eagan, field secretary.

Chairman Tolan. The committee will please come to order.

Mr. Reporter, you will note the presence of Congressman Parsons of Illinois, Congressman Curtis of Nebraska, and Congressman Sparkman came on with us to Chicago and on account of the death of Speaker Bankhead, both being from Alabama, returned for the funeral, to be here as soon as he can possibly arrive. Congressman Osmers of New Jersey was detained on account of official business.

So far, we have always managed to have four out of five of the committee present at every hearing. At this time I desire to say, Governor, we are very appreciative of this wonderful setting. We have been to New York and Montgomery and Chicago, but our accommodations here are the finest we have had so far, and we appreciate it. Out of appreciation we will indicate to the people who are here that probably smoking wouldn't be the proper thing here. We are very grateful to you, Governor.

Governor Cochran. I would just like to say, Mr. Chairman, that I am very glad that this committee could come here.

Mr. Curtis. It was a keen disappointment when I found out that two of our members were detained. I know Mr. Osmers would like very much to be here, and I would like to have somebody from that great New York area here first hand, to witness the story of the Great Plains. Congressman Sparkman was called back because of the death of Speaker Bankhead, and I believe our neighbors share a profound respect for Speaker Bankhead. When I went to Washington, one of the individuals that I learned to love and respect, in a sense that transcended all issues or politics, was Speaker Bankhead, and I was greatly grieved over his passing. Congressman Sparkman not only comes from Alabama, but their districts adjoin, and I know that Congressman Sparkman did the right thing in going back to Alabama, because his people would expect him to come back there for the funeral of the Speaker, although I am disappointed that he could not be here for the beginning of this hearing.

TESTIMONY OF R. L. COCHRAN, GOVERNOR OF NEBRASKA

Chairman Tolan. Governor Cochran will be the first witness. Governor, I wish to say this to you on behalf of the committee, for the purposes of the record: That we feel honored at your presence here today. May I say, too, that while this committee cannot go into every State, that we have contacted every Governor, every mayor in the United States, so as to get the picture, and we started out at New York with the idea that it was not just a California problem alone, and we went from there to Alabama and from there to Chicago. This is the fourth hearing. Then we go to Oklahoma City, Okla., and wind up in California. But, as Governor of this great State of Nebraska, I want to put in the record that we feel honored to have you with us today. You may proceed.

Governor Cochran. Thank you. Mr. Chairman, members of the congressional committee, I am happy, indeed, to welcome this committee to Nebraska and to extend to you all of our facilities in furthering your studies of problems arising from migration from State to State of destitute citizens. Your decision to hold one of your committee hearings in Nebraska, where prolonged drought has harassed our people and contributed to this problem, is appropriate and your visit is timely.

NEBRASKA'S POPULATION LOSS SINCE 1934

Nebraska is an agricultural State. The welfare of all Nebraskans is dependent upon agriculture. Since 1934, as drought followed drought, we have been aware that some of our citizens, both from the farm and from the urban areas, have been dislocated by economic forces and have left the State to go to other sections of the country which have been more favored by Nature. It was not until the completion of this year's census, however, that we learned that our net loss of population had reached the figure of 64,000. And at this point I call attention to the fact that, as Congressman Curtis, a member of the committee, knows, I think, that although we have five congressional districts in the State, approximately one-half of this loss in population was in his district, so I want to advise the rest of the members of the committee how familiar one of your members is with this. Almost half the loss was in the Fourth Congressional District.

Referring to this figure of 64,000 loss in population, we realize that it is large, particularly in view of the fact that ever since Nebraska became a State, 73 years ago, each succeeding 10 years has shown a rather decided increase in population in the census. This is the first time since Nebraska became a State that we have witnessed a decline from one 10-year count to the next. While this figure is large and the loss to the State is serious, it might have been worse and would have been had not Government—both State and Federal—concerned itself with the desperate conditions that prevailed and undertaken to meet them. I believe that every citizen will agree that if it had not been for the sympathetic assistance given us in so many ways by the Federal

Government during these years, our population loss would have been many times more than it was, and the economic condition of those who remained would also be greatly worse than it is now. And I have in mind this fact—the fact that thousands of our farmers and others are fighting for their very lives, having refused to give up the struggle and join this dreary caravan of migrants seeking opportunity under less severe conditions.

EFFORTS OF STATE TO MINIMIZE EFFECTS OF DROUGHT

I want to remind this committee that we have not stood idly by in these emergency years, unable to help ourselves. We in Nebraska—when I say "we" I mean not only State government but local government as well—we have cooperated with those Federal agencies which have come to our assistance, working with them in an attack against the forces that threatened us. Both State and local governments in Nebraska have done their part. We have exercised a strict economy in our own governmental affairs, as required by the greatly reduced income of the people. The people of the State have shown great courage and determination in facing hardships of these recent years. And only because of their courage and determination has it been possible to minimize the effect of drought as much as has been done.

I would say further that I am not talking, alone, about the farmer; I am talking about every businessman in the State, every professional man, and every person in the State, regardless of his vocation. Because, in my judgment, in Nebraska, no matter what a person's vocational life might be, they are in effect just as much farmers, just as dependent on farm prosperity, as the men and women actually living on the farm.

This is merely a suggestion: I think your best evidence that you could obtain here short of seeing this area—if you could just see Congressman Curtis' district alone, you would see half the area, I think, approximately, of the most afflicted counties—and short of seeing the area, I think your best witnesses would be farmers—the ones who have lived it. They know more about it, they know why their neighbors left, they know the difficulties under which they are remaining, and I believe that would be your best evidence.

However, I am very much interested in the subject that you are discussing, and I think I express the sentiment of our people when I say that we are all interested. I would be glad to answer any questions that you might have.

Chairman TOLAN. Governor, regarding the topic of farmers, we are bringing them in from different States around here, those who have been through the mill, as it were.

Governor COCHRAN. Yes, sir.

Chairman TOLAN. And we have endeavored to do that in all our hearings, have them tell their story. Now, the thought back of it is simply this: That there is displacement of the soil, there is soil erosion, and worn-out soil, and the American people just refuse to sit down and starve. They're going to move, and this movement probably is going to increase, and this committee feels that we haven't taken care of the human erosion, this going from State to State, and we are trying to investigate and then see what can be done about it.

Governor Cochran. Yes.

Chairman Tolan. And we are very grateful to you, Governor, for coming here, and I think that your statement, the thought that you have given us, will find a high place in our committee report.

Governor Cochran. Thank you.

Mr. Curtis. Governor, I might make just a few observations: I doubt if this committee develops many facts here that aren't perhaps well known to everyone here in our audience, but the point is this: This is an official fact-finding body of the Congress, and this record will be printed and available for Members of both the House and the Senate. And we do appreciate getting your statement here.

Governor, if you were going to suggest one principal cause of the distress in Nebraska on the topic of migration, what would you say that was?

CONTINUED INSUFFICIENT RAINFALL CAUSE OF DISTRESS IN NEBRASKA

Governor Cochran. Insufficient rainfall—not only for 1 year, but for 7 years successively.

Mr. Curtis. How do the rainfall records compare for the last 10 or 15 years to the previous years running as far back as we have any reliable records, just for any special section?

Governor Cochran. I would say, just as a guess, about one-half in many sections. I think people here in the audience could give you the exact figures.

Mr. Curtis. Yes.

Governor Cochran. Probably Mr. Brokaw could, or I am sure that we might get that.

Mr. Curtis. I noticed you stated generally the counties where our losses had been. What is true as to the ability to hold the people on the farms and give them jobs in the cities and towns in our irrigated sections of the State, principally those that have had enough of a chance to get started, such as the North Platte and Scottsbluff regions?

Governor Cochran. Generally speaking, our irrigated sections are in good shape, but the same drought that we have had in the summertimes on the Plains has existed in the wintertimes in the mountains.

Mr. Curtis. Yes.

Governor Cochran. With the result that we don't have enough irrigation water.

Mr. Curtis. But those counties have held their own?

Governor Cochran. But they have held their own, yes. They are not as prosperous in some cases as they were normally, but they are very prosperous compared with the counties that don't have irrigation at all.

Mr. Curtis. I think, as a committee, we should keep in mind that this investigation involves possibly 4,000,000 people who are the actual migrants. If they go to a place on the West coast or elsewhere, they are also destitute there and it affects everyone, and their plight affects local economic problems and taxation. Whenever we have a condition in Nebraska—I have in mind one county, Clay County—where on family in four has moved away, not only should we be interested in the one family that moves away, but the indications are that conditions are very bad for the three that remain. In fact, while we deal with 4,000,000 people, we are in fact dealing with 132,000,000 people.

RAINFALL RECORD PREVIOUS TO 1934

Governor Cochran. We don't know much about the rainfall records, because we are young as a State. We can go back about a hundred years in Nebraska, which is a very short period. We think we are in a cycle of drought, but we don't have enough history back of us on rainfall records to get a very good idea as to how long cycles have been before. Forty-odd years ago it was just a matter of 2 or 3 years. This one seems to be longer. We think we are going to come back. We have enough faith in our coming back to normal rainfall conditions to believe that we should keep our people on the farms here, for the best interests of themselves and the country, not only from an economic but from a social standpoint. And that is why I emphasized the aids through Government. As a long range matter, I feel sure that we will look back on this period and say that the Government funds that were spent during this period to keep the farmers here have been well justified.

Chairman Tolan. Governor, right there we can readily see, as I know you can, 4,000,000 people knocking at the doors of the different States, and after they get into a State they are voteless and they are homeless and they are Stateless. It is too big for any one State to handle. We developed in New York, for example, that they spent $3,000,000 last year, to take care of unsettled persons and we do not think that New York alone can cope with the migrations, that they can take care of destitute interstate migrant citizens. They had 5,000 deportations there—5,000. All the time it becomes increasingly apparent that it is a national problem, don't you see?

Governor Cochran. That is right. I agree with you entirely, Mr. Chairman, and I am glad that you are making this trip and holding these hearings at this time, that the Congress as a whole may be advised of these conditions over the country. I see the necessity for making this study.

Chairman Tolan. Governor, I took a 200-mile trip into the country yesterday, and at first hand I have had an opportunity to make a personal observation of the conditions in Nebraska, although I have been through the State several times in the last few years. I don't suppose I saw the worst part of it. What I was able to see was plenty bad. The thing that impressed me was the fine farm homes and buildings, which shows that at one time you had a very prosperous agriculture.

Governor Cochran. That is right.

Chairman Tolan. And if I hadn't known about the conditions and just happened through the State, I would have thought this was just an unusual drought year. But when we consider 7 such years in succession, it is no wonder that you have lost in population. I think I would pull out after the third year.

Your big problem, of course, is the lack of rainfall here, and there isn't anything we can do about that. Congress can do a little about everything else, but it can't force it to rain, you know. But you say you have records about a hundred years?

Governor **Cochran**. That is right.

Chairman **Tolan**. What is the longest drought period in that time, until this one came?

Governor **Cochran**. I think a matter of about 3 years, and even then it didn't cover the entire State for the 3-year period. It was in the western section of Nebraska, west of the hundredth meridian. Of course, when I say a hundred years, this record a hundred years back was taken at scattered points. You see Nebraska wasn't a Territory until 1854, so it is only a matter of 86 years, you see, since we have been a Territory, but there were some records taken about a hundred years back at some old settlements here. Records generally, I would say, go back 70 years, and in those 70 years, I think I am correct when I say that this has been by all odds the most prolonged and most general drought. In 1936 it even reached into western Minnesota, Iowa, and Missouri, you know.

Chairman **Tolan**. Yes; that even got into Illinois.

Governor **Cochran**. Yes.

Chairman **Tolan**. That was quite a drought year.

Governor **Cochran**. But ours has been every year. At the present time we can go, I would say, an average of 75 miles or a little more, back from the Missouri River and we have corn. It is pretty good corn in some sections—less than a hundred miles back, then, it breaks off completely. We get a little encouragement from the fact that the drought area apparently is backing down a little. In other words, in 1936 it reached clear over these States to the east; last year it reached a few miles back from the Missouri River; this year we have corn back 75 and in some cases 100 miles back. So perhaps we are coming out of it; we hope so.

Mr. **Curtis**. Governor, your hundred-year record reminds me that there was a very fine gentleman in Minden—he passed away a short time ago—and he was 75 years old. He used to say that he had lived here 55 years and had spent most of his time looking for rain.

Governor **Cochran**. Well, I have lived here 55 years in January, and I can say the same thing.

FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION ASSISTANCE IN NEBRASKA

Chairman **Toland**. I want to say, Governor, that it seems that the Farm Security Administration in Nebraska is doing a very fine job in aiding and assisting some 10 or 15 percent of the farmers here.

Governor **Cochran**. I think they are.

Chairman **Tolan**. I don't know how well the Federal land bank is doing with its borrowers, but the Farm Security Administration, in my judgment—and I have had an opportunity to observe it in five or six States—is doing a wonderful job in Nebraska.

Governor **Cochran**. That is right.

The system they are using, of business management, of making personal contacts with the farms, with the borrowers, helping them to keep their accounts and assisting in building up their budgets and providing them with gardens, irrigated gardens, and changing from the grain crops to the forage crops—drought-resistant forage crops—is doing a wonderful job here, and I think that it is entirely possible for these people to stay on the farms even though the drought continues.

Chairman Tolan. Depending less on cash crops and more on livestock and feed?

REDUCTION OF INTEREST ON FARM LOANS RECOMMENDED

Governor Cochran. Yes. That is the advice of university authorities. In connection with the Federal land bank, I think their assistance would be very valuable if the Congress would make a permanent reduction of the interest rate to about 3 percent; what I mean by "permanent," I mean permanent for the life of the contracts and not just for a 2-year period, so that the borrower could see ahead and plan accordingly. When I say 3 percent I have in mind a rate of interest that seems to be quite common with industry. We are investing our State funds for an average of less than 3 percent; about two and three-quarters I think is the average now.

Chairman Tolan. Well, you can borrow all the big money in the bond market at 2½ percent, can you not?

Governor Cochran. That is right.

Chairman Toland. What is the Farm Security Administration rate?

Governor Cochran. I said the Federal land bank.

Chairman Tolan. What is the rate?

Governor Cochran. It varies from 5 to 5½ percent, depending on when the loan was made.

Chairman Tolan. I think we are with you on that.

Governor Cochran. If there is anything further, either that you think I might tell you after reflection or if there are any of our departments of the State who are not here you would like to have here, let us know, please.

Mr. Curtis. Well, in that regard, Governor, if after reflection you want to say anything else, you may file a further report with our committee in Washington; we will probably close the books in November; that will be our final hearing in Washington. We will give you permission to do that.

Governor Cochran. Thank you very much.

TESTIMONY OF W. H. BROKAW, DIRECTOR OF AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION SERVICE, UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA, COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE, NEBRASKA

Chairman Tolan. Mr. Brokaw.

Mr. Curtis. Just be seated, Mr. Brokaw.

You will give your full name and address and title for the record, please.

Mr. BROKAW. W. H. Brokaw, director of agricultural extension, University of Nebraska. The address is College of Agriculture, Nebr.

Mr. CURTIS. How long have you been connected with the College of Agriculture, Mr. Brokaw?

Mr. BROKAW. Twenty-two years.

Mr. CURTIS. Have you been in the extension department all that time?

Mr. BROKAW. Yes, sir.

Mr. CURTIS. To what particular branch or duties of the extension department did you confine most of your time during that period?

Mr. BROKAW. Well, I have been director of agricultural extension for more than 21 years, and so it has been mostly the administrative side, meeting the various problems that have come up in connection with agriculture within the State.

Mr. CURTIS. Mr. Brokaw, you have submitted a paper giving some very fine facts and information on the problem which this committee is investigating, but I wish you would take just a few minutes' time to stress two or three of the points that you make in your paper, for the record.

Mr. BROKAW. I am very glad to do so.

(The paper referred to is as follows:)

STATEMENT BY W. H. BROKAW, DIRECTOR, NEBRASKA AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION SERVICE

The Great Plains area comprises a vast empire between the one hundredth meridian and the Rocky Mountains, extending from Texas to Canada. It is a region of low and erratic rainfall where early plant and animal life were modified to meet its peculiar conditions. Along its eastern border the forests of the Mississippi Basin gave way to tall grasses and further west these in turn to short grasses. On its western border short grass vegetation was intermingled with the grease wood and the cactus of the desert. Ability to survive through periods of drought was the primary test of plant adaptability. Under these conditions the soils of the region retained their soluble mineral elements, and at present are high in inherent fertility. Low rainfall is the limiting factor in crop production.

Land areas in the Great Plains region may be divided into three groups according to use suitability. The first of these includes sections which are adapted to grazing. The Sand Hills of Nebraska are an example. The second includes the deep, friable, silty soils which have been developed in comparatively level areas. Land of this kind will return a greater income and will support more people when in cultivation than if retained in grass or other use. The third generalized area comprises land which is intermediate in productivity. It has greater fertility, is more nearly level or more desirable from the standpoint of soil depth and texture than grazing land, but it yields questionable returns under cultivation. Areas of this type lie intermingled with strictly grazing land. It is desirable to return a portion of this acreage to grass and to combine it with operating units which have good crop land. The problem of the Great Plains is one of adjusting a population to the resources and rainfall conditions of the region. Its solution does not involve the return of a great empire to a grazing economy.

PROBLEMS CONTRIBUTING TO THE PRESENT SITUATION

Sovereignty over most of the Great Plains region was transferred to the United States in 1803 under the terms of the Louisiana Purchase agreement. For 50 years or more Federal activities were limited to treaties with the various Indian tribes and to establishing overland routes to the Pacific coast. The region with its hostile Indian population was a barrier between the humid east and the gold fields of California. From the point of view of the Federal Government settlement was desirable as a means of preserving national unity. States in the region wanted land in private ownership in order to broaden the tax base. For these reasons a free-land policy was adopted. Immigrants from Europe and the surplus population of the eastern part of the country were encouraged to take up land on the plains.

Legal settlement in the Great Plains region began under the Preemption Act of 1841, but a large part of the land was transferred to private ownership under the homestead law of 1862. During the early period of settlement the physical limitations of the region were not recognized.

In humid areas under the system of management prevailing at the time, 160 acres was a satisfactory farm unit. Farming was carried on near the subsistence level of living. A quarter section provided sufficient crop land to give employment for the operator and his family and left enough pasture for reasonable numbers of livestock. The soil was fortified with accumulated humus and gave high yields of crops with a minimum of tillage. Timber was available for buildings and fence construction and for fuel. Water for ordinary farm needs could be taken from springs, streams, and shallow wells. Rains usually came as they were needed. There were few droughts and only an occasional crop failure. Institutions and farming practices which were developed in this humid region from whence the settlers moved to the Great Plains stood on three legs—land, timber, and water or rainfall. When this type of farming was transferred to the plains, two of the legs, timber and sufficient rainfall, were not present. For this reason it was necessary to modify the institutions and practices.

Many of the problems of the Great Plains region grew out of this early land policy and the traditions and habits of the people who settled it. Others are the result of changes in the price level, high transportation and marketing costs and recurring periods of drought. Farm mortgages were made on a high price level and little success was attained in adjusting them to farmers' ability to pay when depression and drought reduced their incomes.

Soon after the settlement of the plains began it was recognized that the homestead law did not fit conditions west of the one-hundredth meridian. In case the land was wanted for grazing purposes or for wheat raising a quarter-section was too small. In 1904 the Kinkaid Act increased the size of homesteads on grazing land in western Nebraska to 640 acres. Five years later, in 1909, the Enlarged Homestead Act made it possible to take 320 acres as a homestead in nine different States and Territories. These new measures were inadequate in the areas where they were applied. They did not correct the errors that had been made in the early period of settlement.

There are successfully operated farms in every part of the Great Plains region. Adjustments to resources and rainfall have been made on some individual operating units but there is no single generalized area where all farmers are prosperous. Changes in land use, that involve a shift in the property rights of individuals take place very slowly and many years are required to develop a moderately profitable farm economy. This fact is illustrated in the Sand Hills of Nebraska.

As early as 1879 the Public Lands Commission recommended free homesteads of 4 square miles on grazing land. Little attention was given to this proposal until the Kinkaid Act of 1904 which permitted homesteads of 640 acres in western Nebraska. It was intended to provide adequate units on grazing land, but the farms were too small. Within 10 years most of the public land open to entry had been taken and settlers had moved into the area. Over-grazing and cropping of land not suited to cultivation took place almost immediately. As soon as the native sod was removed the soil began to blow and the physical limitations of the area were recognized. Settlers moved away; most of the crop land was permitted to revert to native grass, and over-grazing was avoided.

These adjustments to physical limitations were made rather rapidly, but there has been considerable lag in consolidating the land into economic units. Although there are many large ranches, some of them reaching 100,000 acres in size, the average farm at the present time contains slightly more than three sections. Experience indicates that three sections of average sandhill land are necessary to provide a minimum level of living for a farm family. Extreme poverty is not common, but since many units are smaller than the minimum standard it appears that considerable adjustment in size remains to be accomplished if a fully stable economy is to be developed. There is probably sufficient land in the area, if it were evenly distributed, to provide a larger number of units of reasonable size than now exist. The question immediately arises as to whether a trend toward a maximum number of small units is more desirable, economically and socially, than a continuation of the present trend toward large units.

Successful farming in any area depends upon having a business large enough to pay operating and family living expenses and to leave a surplus which can be used for emergencies and retirement of debt. The size of the farm business may be increased by adding to the acreage of crops and pasture, by growing intensive crops, such as potatoes, on the same acreage, or by increasing the livestock enterprises, especially dairy and poultry. Practical methods that may be used in the Great Plains region are limited by soil, rainfall, or availability of irrigation water, the kind of crops that can be grown, and markets. Rainfall limits the growing of intensive crops to those which are drought resistant and to vegetables which can be grown in limited irrigated areas. Because of its influence on feed supply it is also a limiting factor in setting up a permanent livestock program. Years of short crop yields make it impractical for a farmer to keep as many cattle or hogs as can be fed with his average production of grain and forage. Forced liquidation in years of short feed supplies may bring heavy losses. For these reasons the majority of farmers on the plains must depend upon cash crops supplemented with livestock.

These facts suggest extensive farming as the most desirable practice in the now irrigated sections of the Great Plains region. Size of grazing units in the Sand Hill area of Nebraska has already been discussed. Farm records in other areas of the State indicate that the average acreage required for successful operation varies inversely with rainfall. In the eastern counties, where the average annual precipitation is about 30 inches, success is most common on operating units of 240 or more acres. Not more than 26 percent of the farms in these counties equal or exceed 220 acres. In the central part of the State, which has an average annual rainfall of 26 inches, 320 or more acres are desirable. Only 26 percent of the farms contain 260 or more acres. In the western counties, where annual precipitation drops to 16 inches successfully operated units usually contain 800 acres. Only 29 percent of the farms exceed 700 acres.

A second important problem contributing to population movement in the Great Plains region is change in the price level. With rising prices farm products advance more rapidly than do retail prices. This principle may be illustrated by the use of index numbers. If prices from 1910 to 1914 are taken as a base both the index of prices paid to Nebraska farmers and that of prices paid by farmers in 1915 was 105. Both indexes rose steadily until 1919 at which time the index of farm prices stood at 226, while the index of prices farmers paid for commodities was 200. The purchasing power of farm products advanced from an index of 100 in 1915 to 132 in 1917 and stood at 113 in 1919. Under these conditions there was a price advantage to the farmer and he strove to expand his business to take advantage of it. During this period thrifty farmers who had acquired a competence invested in a home. Savings were put into land equities with the anticipation that continued prosperity would permit liquidation of the mortgage.

Prices began to decline in 1920. In a period of falling prices farm products sink more rapidly and go to lower levels than do prices of finished goods that farmers buy. In the decade 1920 to 1929, the index of average prices received by farmers in Nebraska was 138. The index of prices of products that farmers bought was 155, and that of purchasing power of farm products was 89.[1] Under these conditions it was difficult for farmers to meet expenses and pay interest on mortgages. But darker days were ahead.

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[1] H. C. Filley, Effects of Inflation and Deflation Upon Nebraska Agriculture, 1914–32, p. 12, Nebraska Agricultural Experiment Station Research Bulletin 71.

After the crash of 1929 the price of farm products went down rapidly, the index reaching a low of 58 in 1932. Prices of commodities that farmers buy also declined but did not fall below an index of 107. The purchasing power of Nebraska farm products sank to 54. This disparity of prices made it impossible to meet expenses and interest payments out of income. The situation was made more desperate by a succession of dry years which has continued since 1934. In this period reserves disappeared rapidly. Farmers who had debts were forced to sacrifice equities in property, and many of those who were fortunate enough to have no financial obligations had to borrow for operating and living expenses. Relief rolls were increased from year to year as reserves and collateral for credit were exhausted.

Most of the surplus grain, livestock, and livestock products of the Great Plains must be shipped long distances to centers of population for consumption. Transportation charges and marketing costs are high and tend to remain constant regardless of price changes. The price of surplus commodities at the farm usually is the price at the consuming center to which the products are shipped minus the processing, transportation, and handling charges incurred in preparing and delivering them. The greater these charges are the lower the price to the farmer. The lowest average corn price in the United States received by farmers during the period 1925 to 1934 was along the eastern edge of the Great Plains. The area of lowest average wheat prices received by producers during the same period was centered in western Nebraska, eastern Wyoming, and northern Colorado.[1]

CAUSES OF POPULATION MOVEMENT

The problems already discussed suggest some of the reasons for the shift of population from the Great Plains. Farm units that are adjusted to the minimum needs of families when prices are good and the rainfall is normal become inadequate when prices decline and drought spreads over broad areas. Nebraska figures are typical of other States in the region. Gross income from farm production exceeded $418,000,000 in 1924. It did not fall below $416,000,000 in any year until 1930 when it was $377,000,000. The lowest point was reached in 1932 when Nebraska farmers received $167,000,000 from all crops and livestock sold. This amount was less than 40 percent of the 1924 income. There has been some recovery but income, including Government payments, has not exceeded $277,000,000 or two-thirds of the 1924 figure in any year since 1930.

Throughout the history of the Nation there has been movement of surplus population, reared on farms, to urban centers for employment. In addition to this normal migration there are people who search for new locations because of an inherent nomadic instinct. In periods of economic stress, when there is maladjustment of income between areas, this instinctive urge is stimulated and population movement is accelerated. Many successful farmers have felt it necessary to move before their reserves were completely exhausted. All of these factors have contributed to the movement of population from the Great Plains region.

ASSISTANCE OF STATE AND FEDERAL AGENCIES

The educational and research programs have been adjusted in a large measure to meet the emergencies resulting from the continued drought, insect infestations, and low farm income. Nebraska, because of adverse crop conditions, lost a large acreage of its permanent pastures and legumes. Increased plantings of sorghums, temporary pastures, and other similar emergency feed crops were urged to offset this loss. Intensive educational and research activities were carried on to assist farm people in making necessary adjustments. These acreage adjustments and conservation practices were encouraged by the agricultural conservation programs and the following summary shows the major shifts which have been made in crops and land use during the past 10 years.

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[1] William G. Murray, Farm Appraisal, pp. 117 and 119.

	Percent of cropland in each crop or use		Percent increase or decrease
	10 years ago	1939	
Sorghums	1	10	900
Temporary pastures	1	5	400
Barley	2	7	250
Fallow	1	7	600
Idle	1	4	300
New seedings of legumes; grasses	4	5	25
Old sweet clover	1	2	100
	11	40	263
Corn	50	32	36
Oats	14	8	43
Wheat	18	14	23
Alfalfa	7	4	43
	89	58	35

The Agricultural Extension Service and several cooperating organizations have sponsored a pasture-forage-livestock program for several years. Through this program State and county extension agents help farmers plan their operations for a more dependable feed supply for their livestock. Efforts have also been directed toward the restoration of pasture land, the rebuilding of livestock herds, and improved farm management practices. Introduction of farm flocks of sheep, hog, and lamb feeding, field experiments with sorghum varieties, and studies on landlord-tenant problems were correlated with the pasture-forage-livestock program. Several thousand trench silos have been dug and other methods of feed conservation increased as a result of this and other programs.

Grasshoppers and other pests have been unusually severe during most of the drought period and greater emphasis has been given to pest-control work.

Women's project clubs have studied the problems of adjustment in family living to meet existing situations. Almost 23,000 boys and girls have been in 4-H Club projects which have helped increase the well-being and stability of farm families.

During the last 2 years specialists of the Extension Service and the Farm Security Administration have combined their efforts to help farm families with production of a home food supply from gardens, fruit, poultry, meat, and milk produced on the farm. They emphasized storage of feed for winter, the development of a water supply, home and farm equipment repair, and the use of windbreaks, snow fences, and irrigation from windmills to provide more favorable conditions for gardens. The distribution of seed of drought-resistant tomato varieties by the Extension Service has been an important factor in making it possible for hundreds of farm families to grow tomatoes for home use.

The Extension Service, through schools and demonstrations, has taught farmers to irrigate more effectively and efficiently. A great many more now know how to handle water without waste, and appreciate the importance of subsoil moisture when drought and heat combine to burn crops. There is still a great demand and need for this educational work as the amount of irrigated land increases in the State.

These are only a few of the things that have been done to help meet the many difficult situations. All this effort, it is recognized, has not been sufficient in areas where moisture has been so limited that crops make little or no growth, but many families have been able to get along better with such assistance.

Inexpensive diversion and entertainment, family and community activities have been emphasized more than ever before in all Extension Service work. Even though no tangible results can be measured, it is the general opinion that farm families have been helped to maintain optimism and hope for the future.

Research has definitely established many facts and principles which have been and are being used by farmers in making adjustments in their enterprises. Such research includes farm organization, marketing, cultural practices, crop adaptation, livestock feeding, moisture conservation, disease and pest control, and many others.

It has shown that under proper cultural practices and farm organization the deeper, more friable silty soils, on the more level land, can be kept profitably in cultivation under adverse conditions and will support more people when in cultivation than if returned to grass or other use.

Effective storage of moisture in the soil frequently marks the difference between a harvest and crop failure. Practices which encourage infiltration and retention of soil moisture include trashy fallow, clean fallow, contour tillage, and strip cropping.

The regional adaptation of the major crops has been well established and many varietal improvements made. Generally maturing types of corn, sorghums, and small grain should be grown westward in the region to offset the decreasing rainfall, shorter growing season, and lower seasonal temperature. Much more information is needed, however, as to specific adaptability and relative yields under different soil types and climatic conditions.

The value of timely seedbed preparation, planting and general cultural practices has been well established but additional information should be obtained relative to costs and yield effects of contouring, stripping, terracing, and similar conservation practices under specific soil and climatic conditions.

It has been demonstrated that farmstead shelterbelts, home orchards, and vegetable gardens can be grown in many areas if proper consideration is given to selection of species, sites, and cultural treatments. Such plantings will not only contribute directly to the family living but will also improve the general environment of the home and community.

Definite information has been obtained on livestock feeding methods and the value of feeds that can be grown in the area. Feed combinations that produce the highest rate of gain have been determined. Methods of storing feed from year to year, at low cost, have been developed but more adequate feed reserves are necessary in dry years to prevent forced liquidation of livestock. The value of the livestock enterprise in stabilizing and increasing the farm business and in utilizing feeds of little or no market value has been demonstrated.

There are a number of factors which materially affect success in the organization and management of farms. Some are of greater importance than others but as a rule the profits derived from farming depend very largely upon the extent to which certain essential features of organization and management have been adopted and adhered to. On a majority of farms, success is primarily dependent upon four important factors: (1) Size of business, (2) production of crops and livestock, (3) efficiency of labor, and (4) low marketing costs. The department of rural economics at the Nebraska College of Agriculture summarizes 800 to 1,000 farm-record books each year and prepares comparative data to show each operator how his business compares with other businesses in the county or type of farming area where he resides. This service helps farmers make adjustments and should be expanded and related more specifically to soil types and conditions.

The above statements refer to only a few of the research accomplishments. Westward migration brought to the Great Plains a type of agriculture rather poorly adapted to a semiarid and high-risk area. Modification in type and methods of farming and in social institutions were thus essential. Some of these changes have been made and others are in progress. Insufficient time has elapsed to permit an adjustment of population to the resources of the region. Further research and appraisal of local conditions are essential by Federal, State, and local people.

Federal farm programs have maintained farm income at a higher level than would have been possible without them, and have permitted many farm people to remain on farms that would not otherwise have stayed. The relief load in these States where drought and depression have been most severe has been lessened through farm programs and Federal relief agencies. Probably one of the most beneficial results of the programs, however, has been the restoration of confidence and morale that at times was at a low ebb.

The chief forms of financial assistance by Federal agencies have been the direct payments for soil conservation and production control practices and reduced cost of credit. The Agricultural Adjustment Administration payments have insured a cash income that contributed to operating and living expenses and in many cases were the most important sources of income. Those payments also financed new seedings of grasses, legumes, and shelterbelt plantings and increased the acreage of summer fallow, and the use of other recommended conservation practices.

The commodity loan program of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration was beneficial to most of the State in carrying over feed reserves for the serious droughts in 1934 and 1936 and to some extent in other years. The high prices of feed, however, made it difficult for farmers to maintain livestock production during deficit years. Several areas of the State this year (1940) are in serious need of additional feed for livestock and every effort possible is being made to alleviate the situation.

The Farm Security Administration has done much to refinance farmers and has kept families on farms where some are in a position to make progress toward independence. Farmers who receive loans are encouraged to make adjustments from cash grain farming to a more diversified type of farming with emphasis on the production of food for home consumption, and roughage and sorghums for livestock. Its production for home use program as a part of the farm economy has assisted clients in reducing cash living and the amount of refinancing required.

The Farm Credit Administration has reduced interest rates to farmers on farm mortgages and is trying to change the basis of credit from the speculative to the productive value of the farm giving consideration to the family as well as soil and other resources. Feed crop production, gardens, and soil-conserving practices have been given consideration in making emergency feed and seed loans, thus contributing to a safer and more stable type of farming.

The Soil Conservation Service has furnished technical assistance in demonstrating the possibilities of erosion control and moisture conservation. There is an increased demand for this kind of service.

The Forest Service, through its shelterbelt project and the Extension Service, distributing Clarke-McNary seedlings, have done much to protect farm land from wind erosion, farmsteads from wind and snow, and to improve living conditions generally on the farm.

Education carried on in connection with organization and administration of Federal programs and the use of local farm people on committees for planning and administration have built a better understanding of the economic and social problems involved, their effect on the national welfare and the need of adjustments in land use.

There has been a distinct change in the attitude of farm people toward proposed programs for the conservation of natural and human resources and an increase in community interest and community cooperation in recent years.

Since 1935 land use planning committees, consisting of local people aided by county, State, and Federal representatives, have been organized for the purpose of taking an inventory of local resources, analyzing local problems and making recommendations for improvement. Such committees have functioned to some extent in practically all counties in Nebraska. Where land is well suited to cultivation those committees have advised against drastic shifts to permanent pasture but in less productive areas they indicate that one of the major adjustments needed is a shift from cultivated crops to a more diversified type of farming, dependent to a greater extent on roughage-consuming livestock. This involves a greater use of grass and forage crops for feed production and soil conservation. In some instances such changes will require more acres for the farm unit but in others the situation may be met by increased use of summer fallow for feed crops or by irrigation. Committees in practically all counties have recommended increases in conserving crops and practices and more efficient use of water resources. The Agricultural Adjustment Administration, Farm Security Administration, Soil Conservation Service, shelterbelt project, water facilities, and the Extension Service have all contributed toward a gradual change in this direction.

As a result of the exchange of ideas between farmers and technicians in the development and administration of the various Federal programs and in land-use planning, a better understanding on the part of both farmers and technicians has developed. This development of a common understanding, the recognition of common objectives and unification of efforts, should be helpful in the continued study of farm problems and should contribute materially toward their ultimate solution.

It is the common opinion of many of those concerned with land-use planning that some adjustments are needed in most areas but undue emphasis should not be given to recent abnormal conditions. In most cases gradual changes should be made which have been thought out and approved by the local people. A gradual educational development of the people themselves has been taking place that makes a strong foundation for future programs. Representatives of various agencies, technicians, and administrators, through their contact with farm people, have gained a more practical knowledge of the problems involved and are on a sounder basis than ever before to serve agriculture.

TESTIMONY OF W. H. BROKAW—Resumed

Mr. Brokaw. The problems in this Great Plains region, in a general way, are those of adjusting the population and its resources to the rainfall conditions of the region. It seems to me that that is one of the greatest problems we have had. Having spent my entire life here, I think I know something about drought and the matter of handling Nebraska soils.

SOIL RECEPTIVITY TO MOISTURE IMPORTANT

One of the things that I should like to emphasize, in addition to what the Governor said about rainfall, is that it is not only the amount of rainfall that we have, but it is the conditions in which it finds the land on which it falls. And it depends not upon the mere amount that falls as to whether we get results from it, but it is due, a great deal, to conditions of the ground for absorption of the moisture that does fall. If we have farmed this land over a long period of years, it has reduced the humus content, and it cannot retain the amount of moisture it did in earlier years. There are several other things. We view Nebraska as a livestock State, and in saying that I mean a balanced livestock condition, one in which we raise on a great deal of our better soils the crops which are necessary for the maintaining of that livestock during the winter months. It is not a matter of just returning all of this land to grass. It is a matter of returning, probably, some portions of it to grass that are unsuited to general farming conditions, and continuing to farm a great deal of it to these drought-resistant crops, and to go in, first of all, for a living for the family, and then feed for the livestock, rather than trying to grow cash crops, cash grain crops. I might say that that is the general viewpoint of the citizen within the State.

Mr. Curtis. Now, you mentioned that the reduction of the humus content in the soil has been great, so it doesn't hold its moisture any more. What particular activity or program of planting remedies that situation?

Mr. Brokaw. The rotation of crops in which we grow the legumes particularly. The past period of drought has made it very unsatisfactory to attempt to grow legumes, and we have lost such a high percentage of our legumes and grasses during this period that we are not maintaining the soil fertility as we have been able to do during periods in which we had at least slightly more rainfall than we have had.

Mr. Curtis. Now, Mr. Brokaw, sometimes we hear the general remark, "Well, there are certain areas that should never have been plowed up, that should have been left to grazing country and cattle country."

I take it from your paper and what you have said that that is not wholly true, is it?

THREE TYPES OF LAND

Mr. Brokaw. It isn't wholly true. We have about three types of land. We have that which is strictly a grazing region. That is particularly true in the sand hill region. Then we have good friable soils which are level, which can be farmed with the right sort of rotation, growing the right kind of crops over a long period of years. And then we have an intermediate group between those, in which a part of it needs to go back to grass; the other needs soil conservation practices, not only to save the soil, but to hold what water does fall, putting it into condition that we may retain that water. And so it is not just one problem—so many times we hear, "Just return the lands to grass." It is a problem of balanced management of those lands that we need more than anything else. In fact, I might say that it is going back to the system which did exist in the earlier period. We were upset in our farming operations in this region, particularly by the stress that was put upon the growing of wheat previous to the World War. And we broke up a lot of land, and it turned us largely to a matter of grain farming; the world condition during that period brought about unduly high prices and encouraged that type of farming.

Mr. Curtis. Well, by proceeding along the line that you have suggested, pasture, forage, and livestock program and the like, we at least partially escape the hazards—one of which is the uncertainty of producing a cash crop, and the other one, the uncertainty of the price structure at the time it is harvested. Well, now, I noticed in your paper what you had to say concerning the size of the farm. Now, as I understand that, that would mean that according to the program you would suggest, possibly a third of our farmers would have to leave their land. Now, is that the impression you want to leave?

Mr. Brokaw. No; that would not be entirely true. There is a chance for the adjustment of the size of farms without displacing quite as many as that would seem to indicate, because there are a great many people who can exist even on a smaller area than was mentioned. We have some older people who have retired and who wouldn't care to have a larger acreage. We have some small families, and then we have some people who are unusually resourceful and are managing smaller areas of land. There we use an average term for the average system of farming which prevailed within the region, and so, when you come to sum it all up, you would not displace quite that many.

Mr. Curtis. No.

Mr. Brokaw. And then we have about 400,000 acres that have possibilities for further irrigation practices. And as to a great many of these areas where people would have to move, we might put these people on these irrigated areas where they would not need so large an acreage.

Mr. Curtis. The irrigated land takes care of a great many more families proportionately.

Mr. Brokaw. Very many more.

Mr. Curtis. Yes. And what is true as to the activity it creates in the towns and cities?

Mr. Brokaw. Well, whenever you bring about a prosperous condition with a lot of farm people, why of course, it affects the cities in very much the same way.

Mr. Curtis. Yes.

Mr. Brokaw. As you know, in small towns today—you can even find it out in your section, as you know—the effect on the farming people has affected your towns likewise. Conditions are very similar.

PUMP IRRIGATION POSSIBILITIES IN NEBRASKA

Mr. Curtis. Well, now, Mr. Brokaw, you mentioned something about the undeveloped irrigation possibilities in Nebraska; and how many acres would you say that was?

Mr. Brokaw. About 400,000 acres that we feel it is possible to irrigate, in addition to what we have. Part of that will be pump irrigation; some of the rest of it would be gravity irrigation.

Mr. Curtis. Now, does that irrigated land help develop a balance between the nonirrigated land, particularly among those engaged in cattle raising and feeding? Will the pasture, forage areas, and the grasslands of the sand hills develop a place to send their cattle for feeding, the more irrigation you develop?

Mr. Brokaw. That is very true. The districts in the Republican River Valley are working with much of the livestock industry in the area adjoining it, because the Republican Valley produces much of the hay and corn feed for the cattle in the hills. In fact, that is the kind of agriculture we would like to see in a lot of the areas, some of the bottom lands devoted to grains where it is possible to retain the moisture in the soil, and letting the livestock stay in the hills for the summer months.

Mr. Curtis. For the benefit of the record, the Republican Valley includes about 10 of our southwestern counties, is that right?

Mr. Brokaw. Yes, it does, and they are very productive counties when they receive sufficient rainfall.

Mr. Curtis. Yes.

Mr. Brokaw. That is a very good type of land.

Mr. Curtis. When did this flood occur in the Republican Valley?

Mr. Brokaw. 1935.

Mr. Curtis. And that was the large one that took over a hundred lives and ruined all that valley land?

Mr. Brokaw. And ruined a great deal of the best feed producing land we had in southwest Nebraska.

CROP DECLINE

Mr. Curtis. Has there been a decline in the growing of crops such as corn, oats, wheat, and alfalfa in Nebraska?

Mr. Brokaw. Yes, there has. I will have to refer to the figures which I have. I can give you the figures on that.

Mr. Curtis. Just summarize it briefly, inasmuch as this printed record is in.

Mr. Brokaw. The reduction in corn is from about 50 percent of the crop land to about 32 percent—a reduction of about 36 percent. That is from 10 years ago up to the present time. Of course, in oats we have quite a reduction, but that is due to the fact that we reduced the fertility of the soil. Oats is a heavy feeder on soil fertility and we found it very much more of an advantage in growing livestock to grow barley. While we have had a decrease in the amount of oats, we have had an increase in barley, a 250-percent increase in barley, because we were not growing very much barley before that time, and barley has been doing fairly well in these dryer areas. The reason for growing barley in connection with corn is because often we have a moisture condition in the spring which does not exist during the growing season of corn. One of our biggest increases, however, comes in sorghums, both the forage and grain type. There has been an increase in the growing of sorghums of over 900 percent in the last 10 years, and we are producing a great deal of feed for livestock there which we were not producing formerly.

Mr. Curtis. One other thing: In your prepared statement you mention these individual farm record books.

Mr. Brokaw. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. That you had been educating the people to use. Do you have one of those here for the committee, please, to identify and put in our record?

Mr. Brokaw. I have. Ordinarily, I will say, we do not furnish those to anyone, but we happen to have one that was made out by a 4-H Club boy, and it was left with us on account of a competition he was in. We have been trying to encourage the boys in keeping the farm records, and so we have a copy of that one, and a summary taken from a number of counties which you will be particularly interested in, that shows how we correlate the facts and present them to the farmers at the close of the season. Otherwise, the matter is a private affair between the farmer and our own organization.

Mr. Curtis. Well, now, if you will give that to the reporter, we will have him identify it as an exhibit, and it will be available for the committee, but for the reasons you have stated and also for the reason we do not want the printed record to be too voluminous, it will not be incorporated as part of the record.

In carrying on this educational work in bookkeeping and farm planning, I presume you proceed on the theory that times are difficult and the future is not any too bright, but this is the time we have to think harder, and work harder, and strive harder than ever. Now, the farm program and these related relief agencies connected with the farm program have made a definite contribution to relieving the situation in lessening the amount of direct relief; is that right?

Mr. Brokaw. They have, because there have been so many areas where all of their cash income has come from the agricultural conservation program or from the rehabilitation program.

Mr. Curtis. Yes.

Mr. Brokaw. That has been paid in taxes and all of it has helped in the matter of keeping up county and State governments.

SOLUTION IN ADJUSTMENT TO RAINFALL AND SOIL CONDITIONS

Mr. CURTIS. Yes. In other words, to summarize, you feel that the solution is a matter of adjustment to the rainfall conditions and the soil conditions, plus the development of what irrigation may be possible.

Mr. BROKAW. Yes, that is very true, and in so doing we are emphasizing particularly these things that I have mentioned before, the matter of not only conserving soil but also producing crops that will support livestock, and we are emphasizing working with the Farm Security Administration in the matter of growing gardens and the irrigation of gardens and producing, first, the things which the farm family should have.

Mr. CURTIS. Yes; I was very happy, Mr. Brokaw, when I learned that the committee had secured you as a witness, because of your interest in all these things, particularly the 4-H Club work. We have your written paper, which will help us very much in the preparation of the final report.

Chairman TOLAN. Mr. Brokaw, I think you are a very admirable witness. I want to call your attention to the fact that there is a school of thought through the States which would solve this migrant problem, these millions of our people going from State to State, by saying, "Why don't they stay at home?"

Now, what I would like to get from you is this: Don't you think there comes a time when worn-out soil and other conditions over which the farmer has no control, causes him to move? That is true in a lot of cases.

Mr. BROKAW. Yes; that is very true in a lot of cases.

Chairman TOLAN. Yes; and in different sections of the country?

Mr. BROKAW. Yes; but wherever we can, we are making an attempt through the agencies concerned, to try to keep the farmer here, because of one thing that happens: Whenever he sells out what land equity he has, he spends that to go to the other place he moves to, and they don't know him, and he doesn't know conditions. If we are able to make a comeback, as we believe we can, and we come into a cycle of greater rainfall, we believe that such are the kind of men and women who are fitted to take up the load here again, because they understand conditions better.

Chairman TOLAN. Yes; I am not talking so much about Nebraska. I have the general picture in my mind, and don't you think there is a time coming, when in the Great Plains where thousands and thousands of acres—it is the Dust Bowl area or the loss of fertility I am referring to—can no longer provide a living for as many farm people as it formerly did?

Mr. BROKAW. I think that is true.

Chairman TOLAN. Well, that is what this committee is concerned with. Shall we keep them here if we can. And in connection with that, I might call your attention to the Farm Security Administration, which has taken care of 500,000 families. There are still 800,000 families uncared for. Now, that is what keeps recurring to me all the time. Keep them home. You can't keep them home. Because they will have to move when the time comes when there are circumstances over which they will have no control, and as I said to the Governor, American people will not starve sitting down. They would rather go on the road—there are thousands of them on the side of the road today, and you know that as well as I do—so what this committee is concerned with when they do migrate is, What is the best thing to do about it? States individually can't handle the problem, because it strikes at the tax structure, health, education, and everything else.

Mr. BROKAW. Yes; that is true.

Chairman TOLAN. And I think you will agree with me that there comes a time when the fertility of the soil in certain sections will becomes exhausted, don't you think so?

Mr. BROKAW. I think that is true in certain areas.

Chairman TOLAN. In certain areas, oh, yes.

Mr. BROKAW. We are quite optimistic here. If we can get certain lands back to grass, and if we will have a reasonable amount of rainfall, then we can retain a part of the humus content of our soil and repossess it. We have a very rich soil, and our one limiting factor has been rainfall. Of course, we realize that with increased rainfall that we would probably increase the fertility.

Chairman TOLAN. Of course, the attention of late has been more or less attracted to the migration from farms. As a matter of fact, I think our figures will disclose that the industrial migration is just as great, but of course the attention has been focussed on the farmer striking out with his big family. But I think when we finish our hearings it will be demonstrated that industrial migration is just as great as the farm migration.

It is a habit of the American people to migrate. They are more restless, probably. In fact, I belong to one of those families that kept going west and west until there was no frontier left. And you will notice in the paper presented on that again the fact that you will have certain individuals who will go even though they might go to conditions which would be no better than those they have left.

Mr. BROKAW. And they have.

Chairman TOLAN. But we have, generally speaking, a very stable lot of farm people within this region, and it has been remarkable the way they have stayed during this long period of drought. In certain sections it has gone beyond the 7 years. We had one or two fair years in between, but it goes back over a greater period. But Nebraska people, like other people in various States, have believed, from the Constitution, that they are not only citizens of Nebraska but they are citizens of the other 47 States. As we have repeated so often, we don't raise any barriers under the Constitution against coal or iron or steel going from State to State, but we do raise barriers against the human interstate commerce, so when Nebraska people move to other States they find that this condition exists: That they do not have a vote here or a vote there. We are just seeing if we can find a way to make a recommendation to Congress to give them some sort of status.

We certainly don't want to raise any barriers to their going. The only thing is, if they are going to worse conditions and we can see any way to help them, we do have a desire to help them.

Mr. PARSONS. I was told yesterday, on a trip that I made out through the counties, that most of the farmers who have been leaving the last 7 years have been pulling stakes while they still had a little equity left in their farm, and that might not have got away for 2 or 3 years, in the last 2 years or so are beginning to show up again in Nebraska.

Mr. BROKAW. That is true.

Mr. PARSONS. Which goes to show that what the Extension Service and the Farm Security are doing in trying to keep them anchored here is the best for the individual. He probably wouldn't have had much equity left in his farm if he stayed, but he wouldn't have been out the expense of moving around interstate and back; he would have saved that much. And I want to compliment the Extension Service and the Farm Security Administration for the fine work they are doing here in that problem.

You mentioned the reduction in corn acreage and the increase in forage, both for feed and for fodder. That acreage seems to be very much more drought-resisting than your corn?

Mr. BROKAW. That is the one difference between them.

Mr. PARSONS. And about as high in carbohydrates to feed your cattle, sheep, or hogs?

Mr. BROKAW. Yes; it is.

Mr. PARSONS. Well, when I was driving along yesterday, right alongside of a field of corn—right along together I saw a field of corn burned to a fine crispness, with hardly an ear on the stalk, and right along beside it was growing the forage crops, splendidly, with fine rounded out heads with lots of grain in it. The corn, with the opportunity of growing in the spring, had a little moisture, but these forage crops had grown since you had any rain.

Mr. BROKAW. It takes just as much water to produce sorghums as it does corn, but the one advantage is that sorghum can wait for it. It will remain at a standstill. If corn does not get its rainfall at the right time it is out of the picture, but the sorghum can wait.

CURRENT AND ANTICIPATED MIGRATION FROM NEBRASKA

Mr. CURTIS. Mr. Brokaw, one more thing: Do you anticipate quite a great mass exodus from Nebraska in the next few months—next 60 or 90 days?

Mr. BROKAW. Well, we have had quite an exodus going on for the last 3 or 4 weeks. There have been a great many farm sales. It is out in the central region that we are having most of the sales, probably.

Mr. CURTIS. Kearney was the place I had in mind. I was told yesterday that there were 30 farm sales advertised, people giving up.

Mr. BROKAW. I was at a meeting of farmers where we were discussing this same question about a month ago. Out of the group there were about 60 of the 135 farmers that were in the meeting who still had an equity in their livestock and felt that they must have feed at fairly reasonable prices, to carry on, or they would have to sell and go elsewhere, cutting loose from where they were.

NEED OF FEED FOR LIVESTOCK

Mr. Curtis. The things that you have previously mentioned in your discussion were matters of long-range planning, such as adapting the land and the development of irrigation, and the size of farms, and all that. The immediate need this fall is feed for livestock, foundation stock.

Mr. Brokaw. Yes; it is feed for at least, I would say, foundation stock.

Mr. Curtis. Yes.

Mr. Brokaw. There is need for that especially.

Mr. Curtis. I notice you call it foundation stock rather than just sustenance livestock, because there are some of these men that are in a condition under which they have been able to maintain themselves even during drought, due to the fact that they had grown drought-resistant crops, but owing to the extreme drought in their area, they recently have been unable to grow even that.

Mr. Brokaw. Yes, and their estimate was that they had only one-fifth enough feed for their livestock, and they were willing to sell a reasonable part of their foundation livestock with which to purchase feed, but they are asking to buy that feed at a fairly reasonable price. They feel if they go out, each of them as an individual, and buy in competition with the others they are simply raising the prices on themselves.

Mr. Curtis. Well, can't they combine so that they could buy in large lots for distribution to the individuals and get it at a much better figure?

Mr. Brokaw. The difficulty has been to get a group together in which they had the money available with which to do the buying. We do not have funds for that, revolving funds. We do not handle money in that way in our phase of the work. That work has been impossible, and that has been the limiting factor. We have tried to organize such groups and in some places they have done so.

Mr. Curtis. If you had 50 or 60 of those men and they a hundred or a hundred and fifty dollars in cash each with which to buy feed with, one of the Extension Services could make the orders for them.

Mr. Brokaw. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. That is all. Just a minute—they could thus make up large orders, in carload lots, and have it distributed to the individuals?

Mr. Brokaw. Yes.

The Chairman. Thank you, Mr. Brokaw. This is a very fine statement, and I know it will be very valuable. Thank you.

(The Farm Account Book and Thirteenth Annual Farm Business Report, 1939, referred to by Mr. Brokaw, were identified as exhibits and are held in committee files.)

TESTIMONY OF FAY EVANS, BOONE, NEBR.

The Chairman. Call Mr. Fay Evans, please.

Mr. Parsons. Mr. Evans, come up and take a chair and state your name and address to the reporter.

Mr. Evans. Fay Evans, Boone, Nebr.

Mr. Parsons. When and where were you born, Mr. Evans?

Mr. Evans. Oklahoma City, 1901.

Mr. Parsons. Where were you born, on a farm?

Mr. Evans. In the city—Oklahoma City.

Mr. Parsons. Oklahoma City. What was the occupation of your parents?

Mr. Evans. Farmer, carpenter.

Mr. Parsons. You were born in the city?

Mr. Evans. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. That was while Oklahoma was still a Territory?

Mr. Evans. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. Did you live down on a farm most of your boyhood?

Mr. Evans. Yes, all my life except about a couple of years, I guess.

Mr. Parsons. Are you married?

Mr. Evans. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. How many children do you have?

Mr. Evans. Four.

Mr. Parsons. Have you ever owned any farm land of your own?

Mr. Evans. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. Where?

Mr. Evans. Well, I owned 80 acres out here in Lancaster County, right at the Saunders County line.

Mr. Parsons. Where is the first farm you owned?

Mr. Evans. That is the one out here in Lancaster.

Mr. Parsons. How long did you operate it?

Mr. Evans. Five years.

Mr. Parsons. Was it a profitable business?

Mr. Evans. Well, it wasn't such a great opportunity. I bought it right at the head of the depression, and everything went to pieces on me.

Mr. Parsons. Was the drought condition existent at that time in that locality?

Mr. Evans. No.

Mr. Parsons. What did you do? Did you finally sell the farm?

Mr. Evans. Well, I finally decided it was a losing proposition, so thought I would take a chance on something bigger. I was going to lose what I had, and I thought I would take a chance and maybe I could make it on the other, and I lost out in the end.

Mr. Parsons. Did you sell your 80 acres?

Mr. Evans. I traded it for another farm.

Mr. Parsons. Where was it located?

Mr. Evans. St. Paul, Nebr., in Howard County.

Mr. Parsons. How far away was that from where your first farm was located?

Mr. Evans. One hundred and twenty-five or thirty miles.

Mr. Parsons. And you operated that farm from 1935 to 1938, did you?

Mr. Evans. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. What is the reason you aren't still operating it now?

Mr. Evans. Well, crop failure is the primary thing, and then I couldn't keep up the payments and the taxes, so I let the taxes go for 3 years, and the loan company started foreclosure on me.

Mr. Parsons. What loan company did you have—a Federal land bank?

Mr. Evans. No; the Lincoln Joint Stock Bank.

Mr. Parsons. An insurance company?

Mr. Evans. No; just a joint-stock land bank.

Mr. Parsons. Did they sell you out because the taxes weren't paid?

Mr. Evans. Well, they started foreclosure because I hadn't paid the taxes, so I saw there wasn't any hope, so I just turned it over to them, moved out.

Mr. Parsons. Where did you go to then?

Mr. Evans. To Batonville, Ark.

Mr. Parsons. Why did you go in there? They have droughts down in Arkansas, too.

Mr. Evans. But the year I went down—visiting some friends—it looked like the only place to be, but after I got down there and spent 2 years I found out it was all just as bad as before.

Mr. Parsons. So you went down there because you hoped for a better situation than you had been in for the last 3 or 4 years?

Mr. Evans. Yes; I did. It seemed like they had plenty of rain, and when they got around 40 inches of rain, a fellow would think that was a real place to farm.

Mr. Parsons. Did your friends encourage you to come down, saying it was a kind of paradise compared to Nebraska?

Mr. Evans. Yes; that is just what they did, but the year they went down there they had real crops there, for Arkansas.

Mr. Parsons. Did they sell you some land?

Mr. Evans. No; I just rented a place.

Mr. Parsons. What kind of land was it?

Mr. Evans. Swampy land is what I got—"crawfish" land is what they call it down there.

Mr. Parsons. Where the fertilization would stay only 1 year?

Mr. Evans. Yes. You had to add so much fertilizer to make it produce it was too expensive to operate.

Mr. Parsons. What kind of crops did you raise there?

Mr. Evans. Corn—or tried to. Wheat and oats; just about the same as they do in this country. But it wouldn't produce enough to pay expenses.

Mr. Parsons. Then where did you go?

Mr. Evans. Back up to Boone County, Nebr.

Mr. Parsons. Back to the old home State?

Mr. Evans. Back to the old home State—where I started from.

Mr. Parsons. Did you buy any land there?

Mr. Evans. No.

Mr. Parsons. Did you rent a farm or take over a farm to operate?

Mr. EVANS. I leased a farm, borrowed machinery to farm with—that is, I hired it, really, and worked to pay for the use of the machinery.

Mr. PARSONS. From your brother?

Mr. EVANS. From my brother.

Mr. PARSONS. And what kind of farm did you have in Boone County, Nebr.?

Mr. EVANS. A river-bottom farm.

Mr. PARSONS. I think I was over through Boone County yesterday. What river is it on?

Mr. EVANS. The Beaver.

Mr. PARSONS. How many acres?

Mr. EVANS. Eighty acres.

Mr. PARSONS. Have you purchased it?

Mr. EVANS. No; I just rent it.

Mr. PARSONS. On what kind of terms do you rent this farm?

Mr. EVANS. A third of the crop.

Mr. PARSONS. And you are furnished the farm buildings?

Mr. EVANS. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. Are you furnished any machinery?

Mr. EVANS. Well, my brother lets me use his machinery in exchange for labor for him.

Mr. PARSONS. Who owns this farm?

Mr. EVANS. Norman Olson is the fellow's name.

Mr. PARSONS. Yes. What did it cost you to get started back here in 1940?

Mr. EVANS. When I came back I had about $152 that I salvaged out of my property and started on that. I spent about a hundred dollars and bought some heifers and used the rest to live on.

Mr. PARSONS. Are you building up a little cattle herd now?

Mr. EVANS Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. About how much did it cost you to make the moves, all the way around? Do you think it's been profitable to have left and gone down there and then back? Have you profited by the relocation? Or would you have been better off if you had stayed where you were in the beginning?

Mr. EVANS. I would have been ahead to have stayed where I was in the beginning.

Mr. PARSONS. Especially if you had had the Farm Security Administration to assist you and help you plan and to keep the books and advise you about the kind of crops and stock?

Mr. EVANS. I sure would.

Mr. PARSONS. And might even have had at least some ownership in the farm there?

Mr. EVANS. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. Without being a renter. What kind of crops do you have this year?

Mr. EVANS. Well, we have sorghum crops mostly. I forgot about corn. I couldn't raise that any more.

Mr. PARSONS. How many cattle do you have now?

Mr. EVANS. Just four head of heifers.

Mr. Parsons. You are just starting in this year, or did you start last year?

Mr. Evans. Last spring I bought them.

Mr. Parsons. Have you been employed in anything else part time to bring some cash revenue to the family?

Mr. Evans. Well, just a few days. I had a little work that I was taking care of.

Mr. Parsons. Have you ever applied for relief or W. P. A. work?

Mr. Evans. No, sir.

Mr. Parsons. Have any of your neighbors ever applied for it?

Mr. Evans. Well, I guess a lot of them have.

Mr. Parsons. Are any of your neighbors working on W. P. A. at the present time?

Mr. Evans. No; not right in the neighborhood there.

Mr. Parsons. Does the State of Nebraska have any State aid to the local counties for relief, or does each county take care of its own?

Mr. Evans. I couldn't tell you that.

Mr. Parsons. You couldn't because you haven't had any experience with that?

Mr. Evans. No.

Mr. Parsons. You really feel better that you are back in Nebraska, in the old State?

Mr. Evans. Yes; I think it is better.

Mr. Parsons. Have you any ambitions to buy this 80 acres if you ever got hold of a little money?

Mr. Evans. Well, I don't think so. I would not want to buy that 80 myself under the present conditions. It is all right, as far as that is concerned.

Mr. Parsons. How many years is it since you first came to Boone County?

Mr. Evans. Well, the year of 1919 I came to Boone County.

Mr. Parsons. You have seen some fine crops in Boone County, haven't you?

Mr. Evans. I sure have.

Mr. Parsons. All through the years up until about 1933; is that right?

Mr. Evans. 1934.

Mr. Parsons. You had plenty of rainfall?

Mr. Evans. Yes. 1934 I think was the first bad year we had.

Mr. Parsons. 1934 was the first bad year?

Mr. Evans. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. You have hopes that conditions are going to improve and that there will be more rainfall in this area in the days to come?

Mr. Evans. Well, I hope that it will. I don't know whether it will or not, but I guess until it does we will have to figure on sorghum crops.

Mr. Parsons. Hope springs eternal in the heart of every farmer?

Mr. Evans. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. Hoping that next year will be a better crop year than the one he had last?

Mr. Evans. If it wasn't for that I guess nobody would be farming. [Laughter.]

Mr. Parsons. You're quite right. I think the farmers of Nebraska have stood with great fortitude, facing the terrible situation they have had to face the last 6 or 7 years here in Nebraska. As I rode out through the fields yesterday, it didn't look to me like the corn would make three bushels to the acre. Some of it wouldn't. I couldn't see very much strength for the stock in the burned fodder. I saw lots of corn that will make, no doubt, some very good fodder for the cattle and sheep and horses and mules. But actually how any farmer could have very much hope for the future except that hope that next year is going to be better, is more than I know.

Mr. Evans. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. You are entitled to a lot of credit for coming back to the old State, and I hope that in the days to come you'll get completely rehabilitated and get a stake back in the land, because if there is a man that owns the soil and tills it himself and makes it pay, that makes him prosperous, it makes him a happy, contented American citizen. That is the type we have got out here and that makes us great.

Thank you very much, Mr. Evans.

TESTIMONY OF RANDALL MERCER, BLUNT, S. DAK.

Chairman Tolan. Mr. Randall Mercer.

Mr. Curtis. Just be seated. Your name is Randall Mercer?

Mr. Mercer. Randall Mercer.

Mr. Curtis. And where do you live, Mr. Mercer?

Mr. Mercer. Blunt, S. Dak.

Mr. Curtis. What part is that?

Mr. Mercer. That is practically in the central part of South Dakota.

Mr. Curtis. How old are you, Mr. Mercer?

Mr. Mercer. Thirty-three.

Mr. Curtis. Are you married, and if so, what family do you have?

Mr. Mercer. I am married. I have a wife and one child.

Mr. Curtis. How old is the child?

Mr. Mercer. Eleven.

Mr. Curtis. A boy?

Mr. Mercer. Yes, sir.

Mr. Curtis. Do you live in Blunt, or where?

Mr. Mercer. I live 2½ miles out of Blunt, on a farm.

Mr. Curtis. Where is Blunt from Pierre, the capital?

Mr. Evans. It's 20 miles east.

Mr. Curtis. How long have you been on the farm where you are now working?

Mr. Mercer. I moved there in the fall of 1939.

Mr. Curtis. Do you own it or rent it?

Mr. Mercer. Well, my father loaned me the money to pay for a deed to it. I got a deed to it, but I have still got the taxes yet to pay on it.

Mr. CURTIS. Yes.

Mr. MERCER. I have to assume the taxes of about approximately $1,100 with this year's taxes.

Mr. CURTIS. Is the farm encumbered—a mortgage?

Mr. MERCER. No; not more than just the $300 and the taxes.

Mr. CURTIS. How long have you lived in South Dakota?

Mr. MERCER. Thirty years.

Mr. CURTIS. Has that been continuous there?

Mr. MERCER. No; I went to Washington, to the Yakima Valley, in 1935.

Mr. CURTIS. How did it happen you went out there?

Mr. MERCER. Well, we had been having drought here since—well, it started in 1929 or 1930.

Mr. CURTIS. You are referring to South Dakota?

MIGRATION TO WASHINGTON STATE AND CONDITIONS ENCOUNTERED

Mr. MERCER. Yes; central South Dakota. And it just kept getting worse, and in 1935 we had quite a few dust storms, and it looked kind of bad, and you would see advertisements of nice straight rows of trees and what a wonderful country it was in the Yakima Valley, and how easy it was for labor to get work.

Mr. CURTIS. Who published those advertisements?

Mr. MERCER. Well, I found out, out there, that the State chamber of commerce out there published the advertising showing it such a wonderful country to live in.

Mr. PARSONS. The State of Washington?

Mr. CURTIS. How did they get you? Was it sent you, or in some magazine?

Mr. MERCER. Yes; in the farmers magazines and Capper's magazines; different magazines you will find it.

Mr. CURTIS. Paid ads?

Mr. MERCER. Paid ads; yes.

Mr. CURTIS. And told you to come to what valley in Washington?

Mr. MERCER. Oh, it's not just the Yakima Valley. The Walla Walla Valley and different districts, irrigated, high-producing, and they have lost of crops and need plenty of labor.

Mr. CURTIS. Did you make any further inquiry or just start out there?

Mr. MERCER. My father-in-law had been out there in 1931 in the fall and picked fruit, and he said it was nice out there and thought that we could make a living if we went out there, and he had made a living while he was out there, worked practically all the time he was there.

Mr. CURTIS. How many went with you?

Mr. MERCER. My father-in-law, three brothers-in-law, my wife and boy, and myself.

Mr. CURTIS. Did you all find work out there?

Mr. MERCER. Yes; we all found work out there.

Mr. CURTIS. What kind of work did you do?

Mr. MERCER. When we first went there we arrived on the 15th of September, I think, and went to work on the 16th picking hops.

Mr. Curtis. Yes. What other kind of work?

Mr. Mercer. From that we moved into the fruit and picked fruit.

Mr. Curtis. So you were in Washington how long?

Mr. Mercer. Three years.

Mr. Curtis. And in how many different localities did you live during that time?

Mr. Mercer. Well, I lived in Toppenish when we went there, and I stayed in Toppenish, stayed in town, at the time, while I was working in the fruit. The first fall we worked in the fruit, about a month and a half, I guess. We got a job on a farm 4 or 5 miles out of Toppenish, and I worked on that during the winter, dairy farming and milking cows.

Mr. Curtis. Did you stay in that locality all the time you were in Washington?

Mr. Mercer. Yes; practically all. I did drive over onto the coast and back again, just to see what it was like, more than anything else.

Mr. Curtis. Could you keep your family there where you had employment?

Mr. Mercer. Yes; I managed to keep my family with me.

Mr. Curtis. How old was your boy at that time?

Mr. Mercer. Seven years old when we moved out there.

Mr. Curtis. Did he go to school there?

Mr. Mercer. As much as he possibly could; yes.

Mr. Curtis. He was seven when you went out?

Mr. Mercer. Yes; in his second year in school.

Mr. Curtis. You were there 3 years?

Mr. Mercer. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. Did he get to go enough to make his grade each year?

Mr. Mercer. Yes; he made his grades, but of course we would help him quite a little when he wasn't in school, help him along.

Mr. Curtis. Did he do any work out there?

Mr. Mercer. Not to speak of. He was too young, really. He did pick hops some when we first went there, but that was not much.

Mr. Curtis. Well, now, after your experience out there 3 years, did you return to South Dakota?

Mr. Mercer. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. Why did you return?

Mr. Mercer. Well, I went out there with intentions of trying to get hold of a little place where maybe I could make a living, but after I got out there I seen that if a person had lots of money, he could go ahead and invest it in a farm and make a living, but if he didn't, he never would be able to make it.

Mr. Curtis. How did you get back to South Dakota?

Mr. Mercer. In the same car I went out in.

Mr. Curtis. What kind?

Mr. Mercer. 1927 Essex.

Mr. Curtis. Did you have any help after you got back?

Mr. Mercer. Well, I went to work on the highway here right after I came back, and worked until along—oh, I suppose about a month on that, and then in December, I think it was, I applied for relief, getting a grant, in December or January and February.

RESETTLEMENT IN SOUTH DAKOTA BY FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION

Mr. CURTIS. Did you get any help in getting a loan on the land you are on now?

Mr. MERCER. Just through my father, just through his loaning me $300, and then I got a resettlement loan.

Mr. CURTIS. From the Farm Security Administration?

Mr. MERCER. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. How much did you get?

Mr. MERCER. $1,800, I think.

Mr. CURTIS. What did you buy with that?

Mr. MERCER. Six head of horses and 11 cows, and a bull.

Mr. CURTIS. And that would give you enough stock to get started on; and do you think you can make a go of it?

Mr. MERCER. Well, I can. I guess it is kind of due to the weather conditions again. If we could get a good break so we could raise a crop so we could pay our taxes on the place; that is what is holding me down. If I can pay for my place and get it under control, I have stock enough to pay for the loan.

Mr. CURTIS. This Farm Security Administration—how much of that are you supposed to pay back every year?

Mr. MERCER. Well, it varies from $150 to $600.

Mr. CURTIS. How much are you supposed to pay back this year?

Mr. MERCER. Well, I don't have to pay any until 1941.

Mr. CURTIS. Well, now, have you made any debt adjustment since you returned to South Dakota?

Mr. MERCER. Any what?

Mr. CURTIS. Any settlement with the creditors where they have—anything of that sort at the time you made your loan with the Farm Security Administration?

Mr. MERCER. Well, I didn't have any only just grocery bills and things like that. I took care of that through the loan.

Mr. CURTIS. Would you have been able to start on the farm again if you hadn't obtained a loan through the Farm Security Administration?

Mr. MERCER. Not for some time yet.

Mr. CURTIS. Yes.

Mr. MERCER. Because it's very hard to get work.

Mr. CURTIS. Are you and your family more content to get back on the land and stay there?

Mr. MERCER. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. Than to travel around and hunt for the pot of gold at the end of the rainbow?

Mr. MERCER. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. Mr. Mercer, isn't it true that the people of the Great Plains territory—the Dakotas, Nebraska, and Oklahoma, and elsewhere—prefer that type of government aid which will help them to help themselves?

Mr. MERCER. I think so; yes. I think all the people do as far as that is concerned. Anyone is more content if they can get aid to help themselves than they are to work at other employment.

Mr. **Curtis**. And they want to stay on the land if it can possibly be arranged to do so?

Mr. **Mercer**. Yes.

Mr. **Curtis**. Do you have any ideas or any suggestions you want to make about these working conditions as you found them when you were gone, or in connection with the advertising that you read or anything else for this committee to know about?

Mr. **Mercer**. Well, when I was there, I figured that there was a chance to get work with individual farmers, but after I got there I found that most of the farms was owned by corporations or something like that, you know, and they had a manager who, in order to hold his job, wanted a fellow to do hard work under him and do plenty for his money, because there was plenty who wanted to work, because if a fellow didn't want to work, there was somebody else to take his place.

Mr. **Curtis**. I think that is all, Mr. Mercer.

TESTIMONY OF MR. AND MRS. ROY ANTON HULM, BISMARCK, N. DAK.

Chairman **Tolan**. Mr. and Mrs. Hulm. Mrs. Hulm, will you give your name to the reporter, please.

Mrs. **Hulm**. Frances Mary Hulm.

Chairman **Tolan**. And where do you live?

Mrs. **Hulm**. Bismarck, N. Dak.

Chairman **Tolan**. Your name is——

Mr. **Hulm** (interposing). Roy Anton Hulm.

Chairman **Tolan**. How old are you?

Mr. **Hulm**. Forty-nine.

Chairman **Tolan**. And you, Mrs. Hulm?

Mrs. **Hulm**. Thirty-nine.

Chairman **Tolan**. Have you any children?

Mrs. **Hulm**. Eleven.

Chairman **Tolan**. Where were you born, Mr. Hulm?

Mr. **Hulm**. Russia.

Chairman **Tolan**. When did you come to this country?

Mr. **Hulm**. 1910.

Chairman **Tolan**. You have been here ever since?

Mr. **Hulm**. Yes.

Chairman **Tolan**. Where were you born, Mrs. Hulm?

Mrs. **Hulm**. Pequot, Minn.

Chairman **Tolan**. Pequot. Is that in the southern part of the State?

Mrs. **Hulm**. No; kind of in the middle part—about 50 miles north of Minneapolis.

Chairman **Tolan**. Mr. Hulm, how much education have you had?

Mr. **Hulm**. I finished high school, and 2 years' business course.

Chairman **Tolan**. And you, Mrs. Hulm?

Mrs. **Hulm**. Three years of high school and 1 year of teaching.

Chairman **Tolan**. What are the ages, Mrs. Hulm, of the children?

Mrs. **Hulm.** We have one, 20; one, 19; one, 18; one, 16, 10, 9, and 8; one, 6; and one, 4; and one, 11 months.

Chairman **Tolan.** You did pretty well to remember all those ages. I have five, but I don't think I could give them all to you. Are any of them married?

Mrs. **Hulm.** We have two married.

Chairman **Tolan.** And where are they living?

Mrs. **Hulm.** One at Hettinger and one at Bismarck.

Chairman **Tolan.** The two married ones are not living with you, of course?

Mrs. **Hulm.** No.

Chairman **Tolan.** Are the other eight living with you?

Mrs. **Hulm.** Yes, sir.

Chairman **Tolan.** When did you leave North Dakota to live in South Dakota?

Mr. **Hulm.** In 1932.

Chairman **Tolan.** Where in South Dakota did you go? Where did you live?

Mrs. **Hulm.** Meadow.

Chairman **Tolan.** Was it necessary for you to request public assistance in South Dakota?

Mr. **Hulm.** Yes, sir.

Mrs. **Hulm.** Not right away.

Mr. **Hulm.** Not right away; no.

Chairman **Tolan.** What did you do before you got public assistance?

Mr. **Hulm.** We farmed the first year.

Chairman **Tolan.** Whose farm was it?

Mr. **Hulm.** I rented the place.

Chairman **Tolan.** Oh, you rented it. Did you make a go of it?

Mrs. **Hulm.** We lost everything.

Chairman **Tolan.** You did what?

Mrs. **Hulm.** It was the beginning of the drought, you know.

Chairman **Tolan.** Where did you get assistance from—Farm Security Administration, Mrs. Hulm?

Mrs. **Hulm.** Yes, sir.

Chairman **Tolan.** In North Dakota?

Mrs. **Hulm.** Yes, sir.

Chairman **Tolan.** How much did you get?

Mrs. **Hulm.** I don't know as you'd call it that. We got a grant.

Chairman **Tolan.** Thirty dollars a month?

Mrs. **Hulm.** And then we both worked on the W. P. A. for a couple of years later.

Chairman **Tolan.** When did you leave South Dakota to return to North Dakota?

Mrs. **Hulm.** Well, it was just like this: My husband knew the man that was once Governor, Langer.

Chairman **Tolan.** Yes.

Mrs. **Hulm.** And he had corresponded with this gentleman for a period of time, off and on, and he wrote and he asked him if he couldn't have a job. He felt that he was educated enough that he could hold something that was better than a $44 relief job. So, to get in contact with him, when he wasn't working on W. P. A., a friend of ours took him up there to see him, and Governor Langer promised my husband a job for $125 a month; so, naturally, anybody is going to move if you can possibly do better. He told him to come back in a couple of weeks' time, in the latter part of April in 1937.

There was a man there who heard him tell him to come back. We have a gentleman friend that was with him at the time that he had promised him work. He stood right beside him at the time the promise was made and everything, and they said that the work they were going to have my husband do would not be ready for a period of 5 or 6 weeks, after the machinery was ready in the State capital; and he asked Governor Langer how it would be to move the family up. It would take money to live in two different places. We figured if we moved to Bismarck and had a good job maybe we could educate the girls a little better, and maybe help us out a little bit in the long run, because we do have such a large family. And the consequence of it was, of course, we had to have financial help; so we came back, and my husband appeared before the commissioners of the county and asked them if they wouldn't help us move to Bismarck and provide provisions for us until he got his first pay check. Of course, we understood that we were to have work immediately on arrival. When we got up there, this witness that was there, they called him several times to be sure that we weren't lying, and then we had several different letters from Governor Langer, and they thought that looked pretty good, with these girls growing up; it would be a fine thing; so they helped us move.

Chairman TOLAN. How did you travel?

Mrs. HULM. They took us up with a car.

Chairman TOLAN. Did you have a car at that time?

Mrs. HULM. No; we didn't. They took us up with a car, furnished the transportation, and one of the little boys rode in the truck, and the truck broke down, and they brought the furniture and everything else for us, that time. We arrived in Bismarck on June 26, 1937. Well, we didn't get the job. That was the long and the short of the whole thing. There was always an excuse. Well, he couldn't do it now, or he couldn't do it then. Always they had this reason and that reason.

Chairman TOLAN. You didn't get the job, anyway?

SETTLEMENT DIFFICULTIES BETWEEN NORTH AND SOUTH DAKOTA

Mrs. HULM. No. And South Dakota helped us out for a year. All that time we wern't interested in the law, because we were told there wouldn't be any trouble. After 13 months my husband went to the capital again begging him for help. I was making $15 or $20 at the time, working in a little laundry, you know. The girls were working a little, but that isn't enough to pay rent on. He said to go then to the head of the welfare board in North Dakota, and my husband went and he applied for aid, and she refused him. She said we had been getting the checks from South Dakota. So they gave us a

$6 order for groceries. It must have been around the 25th or 26th of August, somewhere in there. On Saturday evening, on the 27th, one of the welfare board workers came to the door with a drayman and he said, "I have brought a man here, and we are shipping you back in the morning to South Dakota. If you don't go peaceably we will have the law on you." It was either go peaceably or have trouble, and of course at that time, as I said, we didn't know about these different laws until later, and so they packed us up Monday morning and dumped us all into one car. My husband went with the truck. They took us to Lemmon, S. Dak., and when we got there, one of the commissioners was just coming out of the welfare board office, and he said, "Hello, Roy." And he answered him, and he said, "I'm awful sorry, but you don't belong here. You turn right around and go back." They were so smart; they got their chief of police to park right by the car. They wouldn't let us out. Well, he hightails it all over town and tries to get all the commissioners together, and of course Perkins County is a large county, and they're spread out, and it took him quite a while to get them all cornered. Finally the Red Cross worker there came out, and I said, "Are we going to have any supper?" I said, "Don't take your spite out on these youngsters."

She talked to the chief of police, and they marched us over to a restaurant and gave us something to eat, and we sat in that car again until they made up their minds what they were going to do to us. Different commissioners came up and talked to us. They'd come up and talk to us, but help us—no, that was out! So about 9:30 I said to my husband, "Well my goodness, it is time these youngsters were in bed." I said, "If they are going to have an all night session in here, it is time the children were in bed." So finally they took us down to a hotel and put us in a couple of rooms, and about midnight the chief of police knocked on the doors and wanted us down at the attorney's office. We go down and they ask us a few questions. All right, we could go back to bed again. At 7 o'clock in the morning they got us out and fed us and put us in the car, and told the driver he was going to get in trouble because he didn't have a license or something, and took us clear back to North Dakota. In the meantime, while we were in Lemmon, the register of deeds called us and he talked to me over the telephone, and why, if we go back again, he would issue a court order or something. I said, "Well, I can't do anything about it. We are just betwixt and between."

So they took us back, and when we got back they provided a place for us overnight and told us not to leave this place. We would have to wait for a court order. We stayed at this place until 10:30, and then at 10:30 in the morning here comes this chief of police, or the sheriff and the deputy sheriff, to take us down to the courthouse. They had this court hearing and wouldn't give us a chance to tell our stories. It was just their own way, understand; everything went their way. So we were to be taken back. Everything went their way, and they took us back to this place we had been staying, and they divided the family, took part in one car and part in the other.

This time when they took us back to Lemmon they placed us on North Dakota soil. Lemmon is divided; one part is North Lemmon and the other South Lemmon. The tracks divide it. And they placed us on North Dakota soil and unloaded our stuff and broke dressers and baby beds, just any way to get it out of there, because that was the only thing; just to get it out of the way in a hurry. We asked him what we were going to do, how we were going to live. He hands him a $5 bill and says, "Here, this will get you something to eat. Just walk across these tracks; South Dakota is to take care of you, and you'll have no trouble."

That is the set-up about 7:30. And we walk in the town and here we meet the chief of police with a paper to get out, we are not to make residence in Perkins County. I said, "Well, we can stay here if we have got the money to pay for it." He said, "You're to sleep on the North Dakota side."

When they brought us into the restaurant the sheriff from Adams County was there, and he said to the sheriff from the other county, "I have been looking for you all afternoon." And he said to my husband, "If you have any trouble, let me know." We let him know, and called him again, and he said, "We can't do anything for you."

Well, we took the youngsters over to some cabins, and it was getting between 9:30 and 10 o'clock at night, and they wouldn't let us sleep. We knocked on the door. He said, "Are you the people from Bismarck?" We said yes, we were, and he said he couldn't accommodate us. Well, we had a few cents left, so Dad said, "Well, they can't stop us from sleeping here if we pay for a room." So we had a place to sleep that night, and the chief of police gave us the money for the next night. When Saturday came we had nothing to eat. In the meantime we had two nieces and a nephew, but to go and park on them would make them liable for us, to take care of us, so it didn't seem right to make them liable for anything that was not their responsibility, and so we were staying on at this house. I had gotten some food and we had that for the children. The chief of police came with a deputy and we went to the county commissioners and they said, "We will give you 10 minutes to get to the other side of the tracks where you belong." Of course, I said a few nasty words, because we had been banged around like pigs or dogs or sheep; why, people treat their dogs better than that here. There was a deputy on the other side after they put us over. I don't know what he was there for; there is no place to eat or anything there. Well, he said we couldn't go into North Dakota, and I said, "Well, there is just one thing to do, Dad. We are going to park on these tracks until we have help." I said, "Something has got to be done for us. One side or the other has got to keep us." So this deputy called the commissioners and several different people, and we couldn't get help no matter which way it went. Nobody wanted to help. They all felt sorry for us, but not one would lift a finger to do anything, and so the deputy says, "Well, we will go on the other side and see what we can do. You have to have a bed, at least." He got in touch with a fellow who works for the State of South Dakota or something and he got us a cabin, and he said, "Don't you let them put you out."

They provided food from the Sunday of that week until September the tenth. That was the next Saturday. We lived there in a two-room cabin, and one man took three of the older children down to his place and kept them, and each morning he brought milk for the little ones and bread and the essentials that a person needs. I can't say we were abused in that form, but it wasn't very pleasant.

We had no clothes for the children. The stuff was locked up and the key was given to a party and we couldn't get it. So that night, the 9th, the sheriff from Adams County came down with some groceries and he said, "You can do just fine. You can bake some bread and cook the things you need." I said, "How can I do that? I have only two burners—no oven." When that deputy came there and found out the sheriff had been there and into this place he was very angry. He didn't want to be responsible, either.

They brought us up to Hettinger September 10. We sad in the courthouse from 6:30 in the morning. We sat in that courthouse with nothing to eat until noon. Finally the welfare board gave my husband a dollar and told him to get something to eat for the family. We had lunch right there in the courthouse, and still were fiddling around wondering what was going to happen. Finally they were going to place us out in the country about 10 miles away from everybody.

At that I rebelled. I had one little boy who got sick very easy and got pneumonia. And he was sick from being exposed, sleeping on the floor. I said, "If you do, I am going to hold you responsible for anything that happens. If we stay here a day or a week, you could take care of us that little space of time." Finally, about 4 o'clock, they found us a place, rented a home. And they sent my husband down to get the furniture with the truck. We stayed there from the 10th of September till the 10th of June in 1939. In June they had a hearing between Burleigh County and Adams County. In the meantime they provided heat, food, light, water, just the bare necessities. As far as clothes was concerned, I suppose they did the best they could.

Chairman Tolan. Mrs. Hulm, I have some questions to ask you, to keep the record straight.

You got $30 a month from the Farm Security Administration of South Dakota as a grant; and a $30 relief check from Perkins County?

Mrs. Hulm. That is right. That went right on in Bismarck.

Chairman Tolan. Did your husband make any effort to find employment?

Mrs. Hulm. Yes; he did. Both of us tried.

Chairman Tolan. But his physical condition——

Mrs. Hulm. It handicaps him. They think because he is physically—you know, disabled—that he maybe can't handle the work or something, but he is strong, even if he doesn't look like it.

Chairman Tolan. Yes. Now, the authorities in Perkins County refused to accept responsibility, saying you had been out of South Dakota for 1 year, thereby losing residence. In other words, they kicked you back and forth?

Mrs. Hulm. They kicked us back and forth, that is right.

Chairman Tolan. And South Dakota has a law making it a felony to transport an indigent person across the State lines in South Dakota, is that right?

Mrs. Hulm. I don't know about that. I couldn't answer you truthfully on that. Do you know anything about it, Roy?

Mr. Hulm. No.

Chairman Tolan. Do you know of any law in North Dakota or South Dakota making it a crime to transport wheat or corn or coal across the line; is it a crime to do that?

Mr. Hulm. Yes.

Mrs. Hulm. Why, no.

Chairman Tolan. There is no law of that kind, is there?

Mr. Hulm. You have to have a license.

Chairman Tolan. Yes. In other words, there was a lawsuit there, entered in South Dakota, to see whether you belonged to South Dakota or North Dakota; is that right?

Mr. Hulm. That is right.

Mrs. Hulm. The first lawsuit was to see who was going to be reimbursed for our keep. That was the one on June 10.

Chairman Tolan. How was that decided?

Mr. Hulm. That was decided that Burleigh County was held liable for all expenses down there.

Chairman Tolan. Is that North or South Dakota?

Mrs. Hulm. That was North Dakota which was held responsible for all expenses. The lawsuit was between Adams County and Burleigh County first. Adams County sued Burleigh County for reimbursement.

Chairman Tolan. Did you and Mr. Hulm appear as witnesses?

Mrs. Hulm. Absolutely. Adams County, I think they had to pay for our keep while we was there.

Chairman Tolan. Well, the next lawsuit, was this last May, when it seemed that the State of North Dakota was suing South Dakota, Perkins County?

Mrs. Hulm. Yes.

Chairman Tolan. You must be quite familiar, you and your husband, with that North and South Dakota line there.

Mrs. Hulm. We are.

Chairman Tolan. Do you know whether there was any settlement made between Adams County and Burleigh County?

Mr. Hulm. I think that was $500.

Chairman Tolan. What was that?

Mr. Hulm. A little better than $500.

Chairman Tolan. That was the compromise, the payment of Adams County by Burleigh County for a relief bill amounting to $1,168; is that right?

Mr. Hulm. That is right; yes.

Chairman Tolan. And where is that Burleigh County—North Dakota?

Mrs. Hulm. Yes.

Chairman Tolan. And Adams County?

Mrs. **Hulm**. North Dakota, too. That is right on the line where we spent so much time.

Chairman **Tolan**. Lemmon is partly in North Dakota and partly in South Dakota?

Mrs. **Hulm**. Yes.

Chairman **Tolan**. Was that the money of the county, or what was it?

Mrs. **Hulm**. The way I understand it is that so much was to be taken from relief funds, so much from county. Was that the way you understood?

Mr. **Hulm**. Yes.

Mrs. **Hulm**. But we weren't there at the time they settled it or anything. I really don't know.

Chairman **Tolan**. What year was that?

Mrs. **Hulm**. A year ago; in June 1939.

Mr. **Parsons**. Where are you living at the present time?

Mrs. **Hulm**. In Bismarck, N. Dak.; they brought us back.

Mr. **Parsons**. How are you maintaining yourselves?

Mrs. **Hulm**. They are maintaining us now, and about 2 weeks ago they came and signed my husband for W. P. A.

Chairman **Tolan**. Have you any idea, Mrs. Hulm, about what we should do about the State laws—whether it would be a good plan to make them uniform about problems of this kind?

Mrs. **Hulm**. Well, it seems to me that there should be something done so that a person doesn't have to be treated like a dog.

Chairman **Tolan**. As I understand it, under the laws of South Dakota, if you are absent for a period of 30 days you then become ineligible for relief?

Mrs. **Hulm**. That is correct.

Chairman **Tolan**. Is that true, Roy?

Mr. **Hulm**. Yes.

Chairman **Tolan**. So, then, you have lost your status in South Dakota and can't get one in North Dakota, is that the idea?

Mr. **Hulm**. That is it.

Chairman **Tolan**. A man without a country.

Mr. **Hulm**. That is correct.

Chairman **Tolan**. Is there anything further, Mr. Parsons?

Mr. **Parsons**. No.

Chairman **Tolan**. Thank you very much, both of you, for coming here. We hope it will be possible to recommend to Congress that some legislation be enacted to change this situation.

Mrs. **Hulm**. Well, I hope they do.

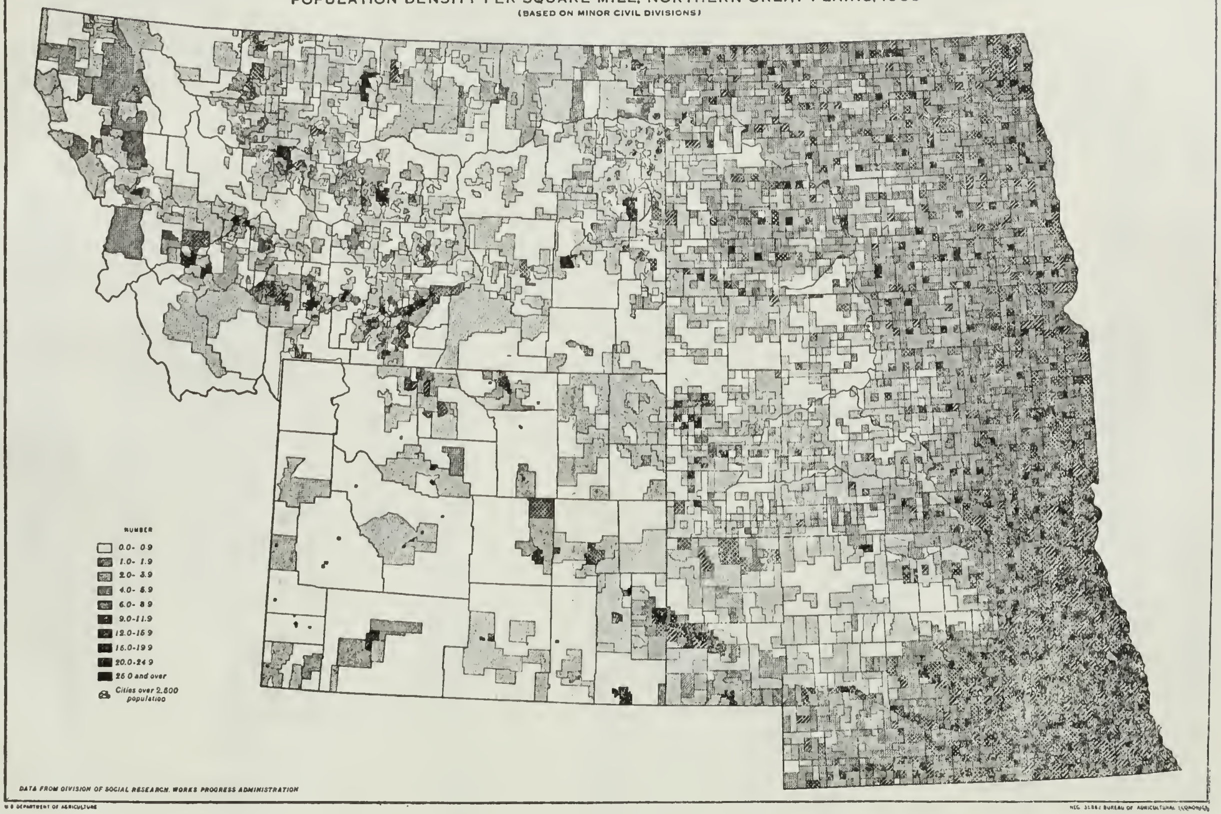
Chairman **Tolan**. We will take a 5-minute recess.

(Thereupon, at 11:10 a. m., a short recess was taken.)

TESTIMONY OF DONALD HAY, BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS, LINCOLN, NEBR.

Chairman **Tolan**. Mr. Donald Hay. Mr. Hay, take a chair and give your name and address and whom you represent to the reporter for the record.

POPULATION DENSITY PER SQUARE MILE, NORTHERN GREAT PLAINS, 1930
(BASED ON MINOR CIVIL DIVISIONS)


NUMBER
0.0- 0.9
1.0- 1.9
2.0- 3.9
4.0- 5.9
6.0- 8.9
9.0-11.9
12.0-15.9
16.0-19.9
20.0-24.9
25.0 and over
Cities over 2,500 population

DATA FROM DIVISION OF SOCIAL RESEARCH, WORKS PROGRESS ADMINISTRATION

U S DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

NEG. 32882 BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS

Mr. HAY. Donald Hay, Lincoln, Nebr., serving as area leader for the Division of Farm Population and Rural Welfare, Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

Mr. PARSONS. The committee has received your prepared statement, Mr. Hay, which will go into the record. I have gone over it very carefully and have found some very interesting information that is quite relevant to the problem this committee is investigating.

(The statement referred to is as follows:)

STATEMENT BY DONALD G. HAY, SOCIOLOGIST, BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS, DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

RURAL POPULATION MIGRATION IN THE NORTHERN GREAT PLAINS

In 1930, some 3,514,828 people lived in the 5 States comprising the area known as the Northern Great Plains—Montana, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wyoming. Seventy years ago there were only 166,887 persons in the same area. The population increased 2,708,289 persons, or 1,623 percent, between 1870 and 1910, with a noticeable slowing up of numbers since 1910.

The total population in 4 of the States—Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wyoming—decreased 132,615, or 4.5 percent, from 1930 to 1940, according to preliminary releases of the 1940 census. Between 1930 and 1940, 187 out of 238 counties in these 4 States lost population. The loss was 20 percent or more in 30 counties, and in 2 counties the loss was more than 40 percent of the population there in 1930. Of the 51 counties in the 4 States which had an increase of population during the last decade, 9 increased 20 percent or more and 3 counties in Wyoming gained 40 percent or more.

Wheat has not been the only export, for the area has been producing a human surplus for many years. Large families and a high rate of natural increase have been characteristic of these States generally since their settlement.

The total population of the Northern Plains was 2.9 percent of the population of the United States in 1930.

DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL POPULATION, 1930

Agriculture is to the Northern Great Plains what coal and iron are to Pittsburgh and what automobiles are to Detroit. Early homestead policy provided for the settlement of four homestead families in each square mile of territory and this practice set up the homestead pattern for much of the early settlement. Agriculture is carried on on an extensive scale throughout the area except in the eastern or more humid parts and in the few spots devoted to specialty crops and irrigated territory. Villages and small cities are in general scattered, with a tendency toward concentration in the eastern part.

RESIDENCE DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION, 1930

While the Northern Great Plains contained 2.9 percent of the total population of the United States in 1930, it had 5.4 percent of the Nation's farm population. The rural-farm population constituted only 24.8 percent in the Nation, but was 46.8 percent of the total population in the Northern Great Plains. The lowest ratio was in Wyoming with 32 percent, whereas in North Dakota the farm population was almost 60 percent of the total population. No other area in the United States had so large a proportion of its population living on farms in 1930.

The predominance of the farming population and the agricultural industry is reflected in the rural-nonfarm or village population. The villages are the service stations of the farmer and are highly integrated with economic and social ties to agriculture. There is a constant interchange of population between farms and villages.

Even the urban population of the area is closely dependent upon agriculture for its maintenance and development. There is only one city of 100,000 and over (Omaha, Nebr.) in the area, and there are 29 cities of 10,000 and over.

The dominating influence of agriculture is an outstanding characteristic of the five States. Particular attention can well be given to the farm population in appraising the migration problem as associated with the Northern Great Plains.

NATIVE WHITE MIGRANTS BORN IN NORTHERN GREAT PLAINS STATES AND LIVING ELSEWHERE, 1910 AND 1930

This area was originally settled as part of the great western movement. The predominating source of early settlers in regard to native-born white immigrants, was the States to the east of the plains. But by the time the Dakotas achieved statehood in 1889, persons who had been born there were to be found in every State. Since 1910 these States have also contributed a considerable number to the movement to other areas. By 1930, persons born in Nebraska but no longer living there, exceeded the number of residents who had been born elsewhere. The trend was the same in each of the other four States, with the exception of Wyoming.

Movement to the Pacific Coast States from the Northern Great Plains was occurring in a considerable degree as early as 1910 but a greater proportion of the migrants were heading westward by 1930. In both 1910 and 1930 there had also been much movement of population to States to the east which had contributed heavily to settlement of the Plains. Of the persons born in the five States but residing elsewhere in 1930, 39.4 percent were living in States east of the Plains, 11.4 percent in States to the south, and 49.2 percent were in States west of the Northern Great Plains.

The migration of population, both within the area and to other States, did not receive particular attention so long as the migrants were financially able to establish themselves elsewhere, or other areas had ready opportunities for their services.

A study of 12 townships in western North Dakota indicates that instability of population has been characteristic of parts in that State ever since it was settled, with recurring waves of migration into and out of the localities. In these 12 townships, nearly 40 percent of the farm operators present in 1919 had moved out by 1926, and for every 10 farmers leaving, there were 6 new farm operators who came to the townships during the period.

NET MIGRATION OF FARM POPULATION, 1930–35

The volume of net migration from farms in the Northern Great Plains between 1930 and 1935 was slightly higher than during the 1920's on the basis of average movement per year.

The chart, "Net Migration of Farm Population, 1930–35," indicates that heavy migration out was characteristic of a large number of counties in this area.

The Northern Plains had become an export area for population before 1930 except in the western parts and the droughts of the 1930's served to speed up the movement away from the farms. Continued mechanization of agriculture and adverse economic situations were also influential factors in occasioning out-movement of farm people.

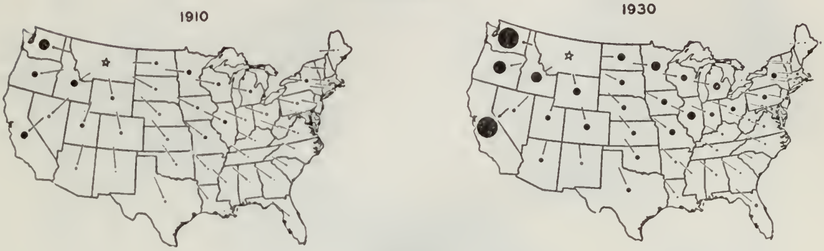
Studies indicate that population migration alone was usually an unsatisfactory technique in providing adjustments for both the individuals and the areas involved. Too often periods of in-movement have followed periods of abandonment, and people come to take the places of others who have failed to make the desired livelihood in an area.

NORTHERN GREAT PLAINS MIGRATION, 1930–39

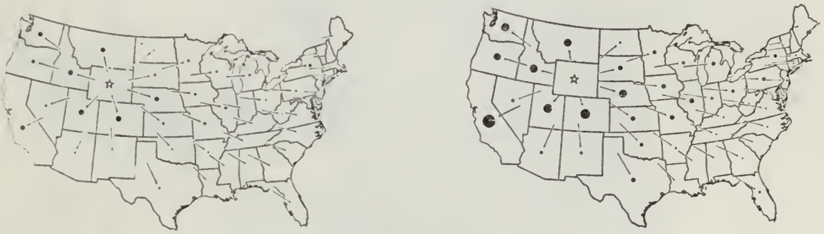
Preliminary data from the 1940 census, together with total natural increase (number of births over deaths) for the last decade, indicate there was a net out-migration of slightly more than 400,000 persons from Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wyoming, from 1930 to 1940. This indicates that there was some 12 percent loss of population, due to net migration, during the 10 years in these 4 States. All 4 States experienced a loss of population on the basis of net migration, with rates of loss of 1 percent for Wyoming, 11.9 percent for Nebraka, 15.8 percent in South Dakota, and 16.2 percent in North Dakota.

FIG. 9-NATIVE WHITE MIGRANTS BORN IN 10 DROUGHT STATES AND RESIDING ELSEWHERE 1910 AND 1930

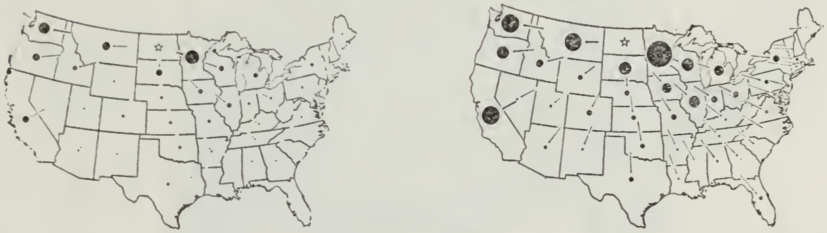
MONTANA



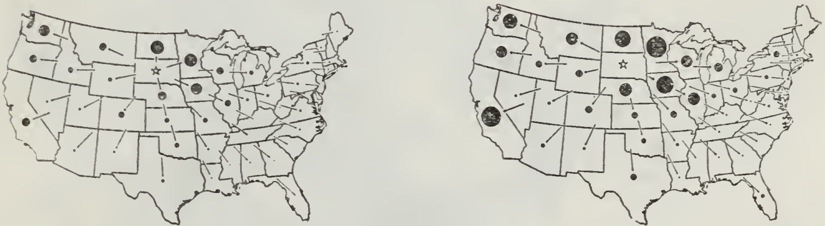
WYOMING



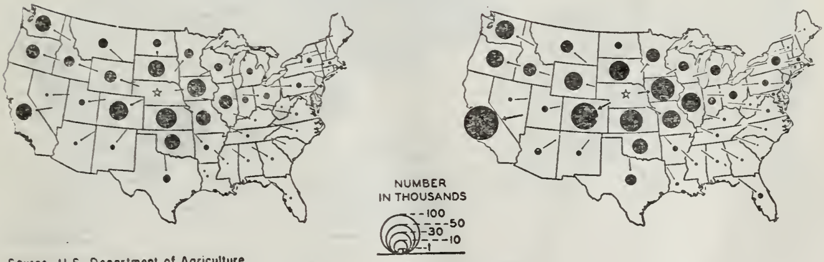
NORTH DAKOTA



SOUTH DAKOTA



NEBRASKA


NUMBER IN THOUSANDS
100
50
30
10
1

Source U S Department of Agriculture

139051

139051

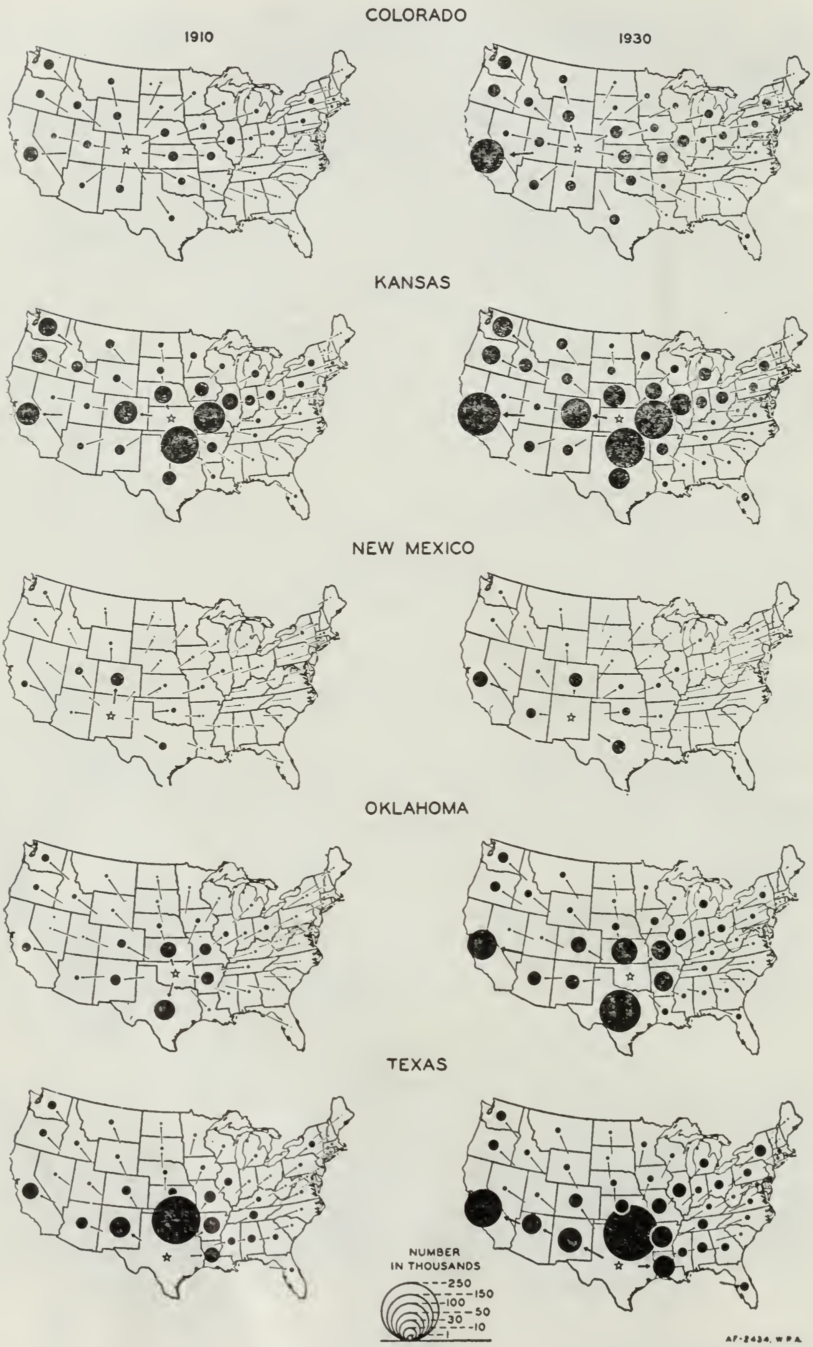
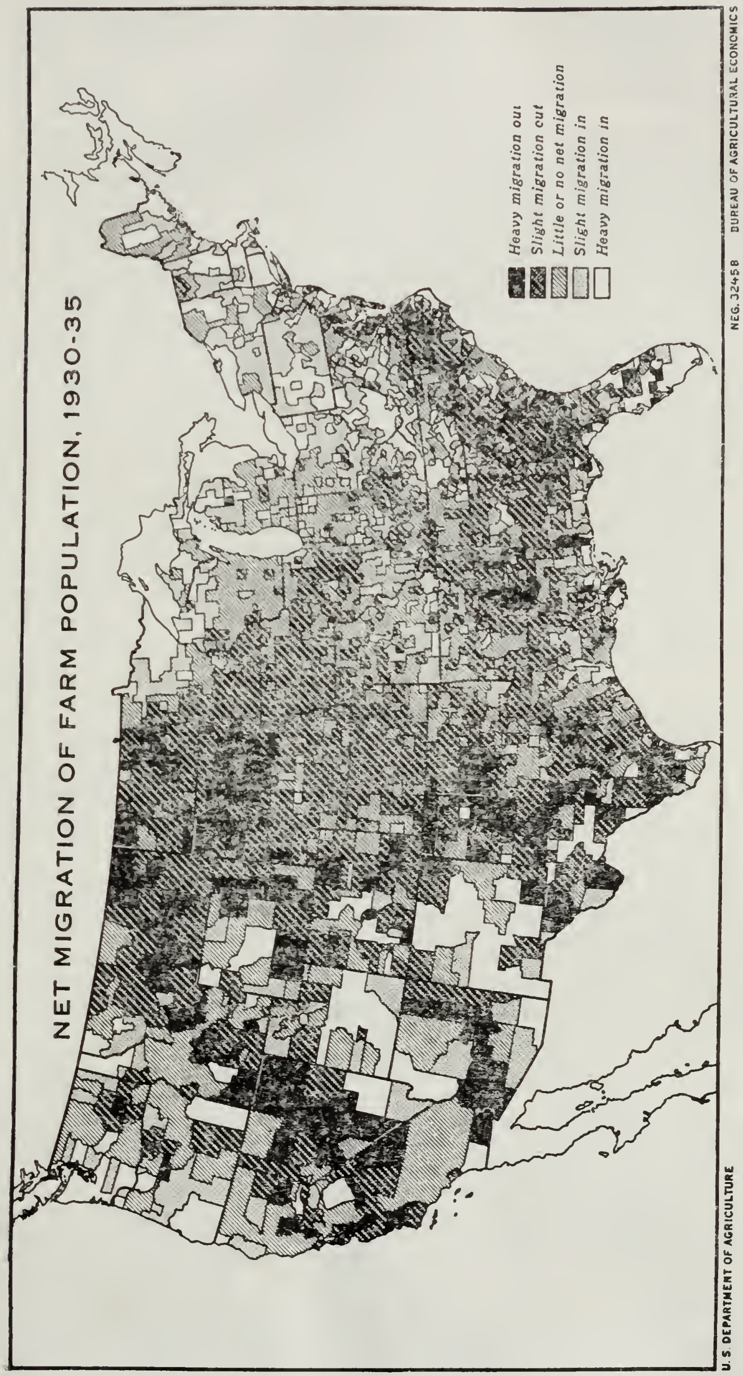


FIG. 9 - NATIVE WHITE MIGRANTS BORN IN 10 DROUGHT STATES AND RESIDING ELSEWHERE 1910 AND 1930 – Continued

COLORADO
1910
1930
KANSAS
NEW MEXICO
OKLAHOMA
TEXAS
NUMBER IN THOUSANDS
250
150
100
50
30
10
1
AF-2434, W.P.A.



NET MIGRATION OF FARM POPULATION, 1930-35

Heavy migration out
Slight migration out
Little or no net migration
Slight migration in
Heavy migration in

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE NEG. 32458 BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS

The generally high birth rates in these States and resulting natural increase were able to offset the net migration losses to a considerable extent.

Evidence from particular studies of population movement is cited as describing the net population change in certain areas.

A study of population migration in four areas of the Northern Great Plains is now being completed, and certain preliminary data are available. One area was selected in each of the following States: Montana, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota. Three of the areas included only open-country population, the fourth included a village as well as open country.

The pattern of population change in these farm areas during the 1930's is one of increase during the first few years of the decade, followed by an out-migration of such volume that there was a net loss for the entire decade. The population of these farm areas reached its peak in the early part of 1934, and net losses have occurred regularly since then. In the village, which had a relatively smaller loss than the farming areas for the entire period, there was a continued increase in population until 1936; since then the migration away has more than offset the earlier gains. In both village and farming areas, the net loss for the decade understates the situation, for the net losses were concentrated in the later years after there had been some increases.

All of the areas experienced both an out-migration as well as an in-migration during the 1930's. A small net in-migration of households to the farm areas occurred between 1930 and 1933, but after that there was a net out-migration. The volume of out-migration reached its peak in 1936 and then decreased again. Meanwhile the volume of in-migration had fluctuated somewhat, reaching a low point in 1936. The subsequent recovery, however, did not again raise it above the level reached in 1933. The largest net loss was reported in 1936—after that, net losses were less and during 1939 the number of households moving into these areas almost equaled the number moving out. In contrast to the movement of households, there was a net movement of single persons away from these areas throughout the decade, except in 1930 and 1933.

As a result of the net migrations from the areas and a reduction in birth rates, the farm areas included in the survey experienced net losses in population ranging between 10 and 40 percent. The loss in the village was about 15 percent.

Each of the areas had a large turn-over of population, the total numbers moving in and out being much greater than the net change as reported. During each of the years there was a continual movement in and out—some households and single persons moving out while others were coming in, at least partially filling the gaps. In one of the farm areas, for example, there were 121 households in 1930. Ten years later only 68 of them (55 percent) were still there. Fifty-two of them had moved out and 1 was dissolved by death. But during the same time, 52 households moved into the area (the same number as those moving out) and 20 of them were still there in 1940. The 1940 population thus included 88 households, of which nearly one-fourth had moved in since 1930. More than three times as many households actually moved as would have been required to effect the net migration loss of 32 households. Similar movements were found in each of the survey areas. Although this continual turn-over of population is not new in the area, it is of great importance to the conduct of those activities which depend upon social bonds that ordinarily develop through a continued contact with neighbors. These communities faced at the same time the adjustments required by the departure of former residents, as well as those involved in the absorption of newcomers.

A study of farm-population mobility in sample areas in Montana indicated an increase in these areas of 26 percent from 1926 to 1932, the year of peak population, and a decrease of 17 percent from 1926 to 1937. The population of these areas, which included localities in western Montana having an influx of population, increased 5 percent for the entire period from 1926 to 1937. The years of greatest entrance of farm families were 1928 and 1929, with the years of greatest exodus being 1936 and the first half of 1937.

Studies of farm population movement in North Dakota for 1936–38 indicated considerable instability of farm residents for this period. An estimated 57,000 persons moved from North Dakota farms during the 3-year period, with some 45,000 going to villages or cities in North Dakota and in other States, and 12,000 moving to farms in other States. During the same 3-year period, an estimated 11,000 persons moved to North Dakota farms. About 9,000 persons moved from villages and cities to farms in the State and 2,000 came from farms in other States.

SOURCES AND DESTINATIONS OF POPULATION MOVEMENT FROM SELECTED AREAS IN THE NORTHERN GREAT PLAINS

Information as to direction of recent migration is based on information from particular studies.

Preliminary data from the study of population migration in four areas of the Northern Great Plains indicated that migrations to the west coast are a small part of the total migration from these areas. Although a high degree of mobility was characteristic, most of the migrants came from or went to nearby areas. However, migrants to the West Coast States were much more common than migrants from those States.

Almost 70 percent of all households and single persons who moved out of the survey areas (townships) between 1930 and 1940, went to some other place within the same State, and approximately 30 percent of the total remained within the same county. Among those who went outside their own State, one-half went to the Pacific Coast States (California, Oregon, Washington, and Idaho). Migrants from these areas to the Pacific coast preferred the Northwestern States, which received two and one-half times as many of them as did California. Most of the others were scattered through the Midwestern States—the Southern and Northeastern States receiving virtually none of the migrants.

Migration to the Pacific Coast States was most frequent during the years 1934–37, when the total number of migrants away from the survey areas was greatest. More than two-thirds of the households and single persons moving to the Pacific Coast States left during the 4 years, 1934–37. Following 1937 there were declines both in the total out-movement and in the proportion going to the Pacific Coast States.

Migrants who left the survey area, but remained within the same State, tend to travel relatively short distances, frequently remaining in the same county or in nearby counties. The migrants from the village were somewhat more widely scattered throughout the State than those who moved from farm areas.

The exchange of population in the surveyed area indicates a shift from east to west, particularly among those who cross State lines. The migrants from the Pacific Coast States were only one-fourth as numerous as those moving to those States, but the States east of the Northern Great Plains contributed half as many migrants to the survey areas as they received from them. No evidence of any considerable return movement on the part of persons who had previously left the survey areas was found.

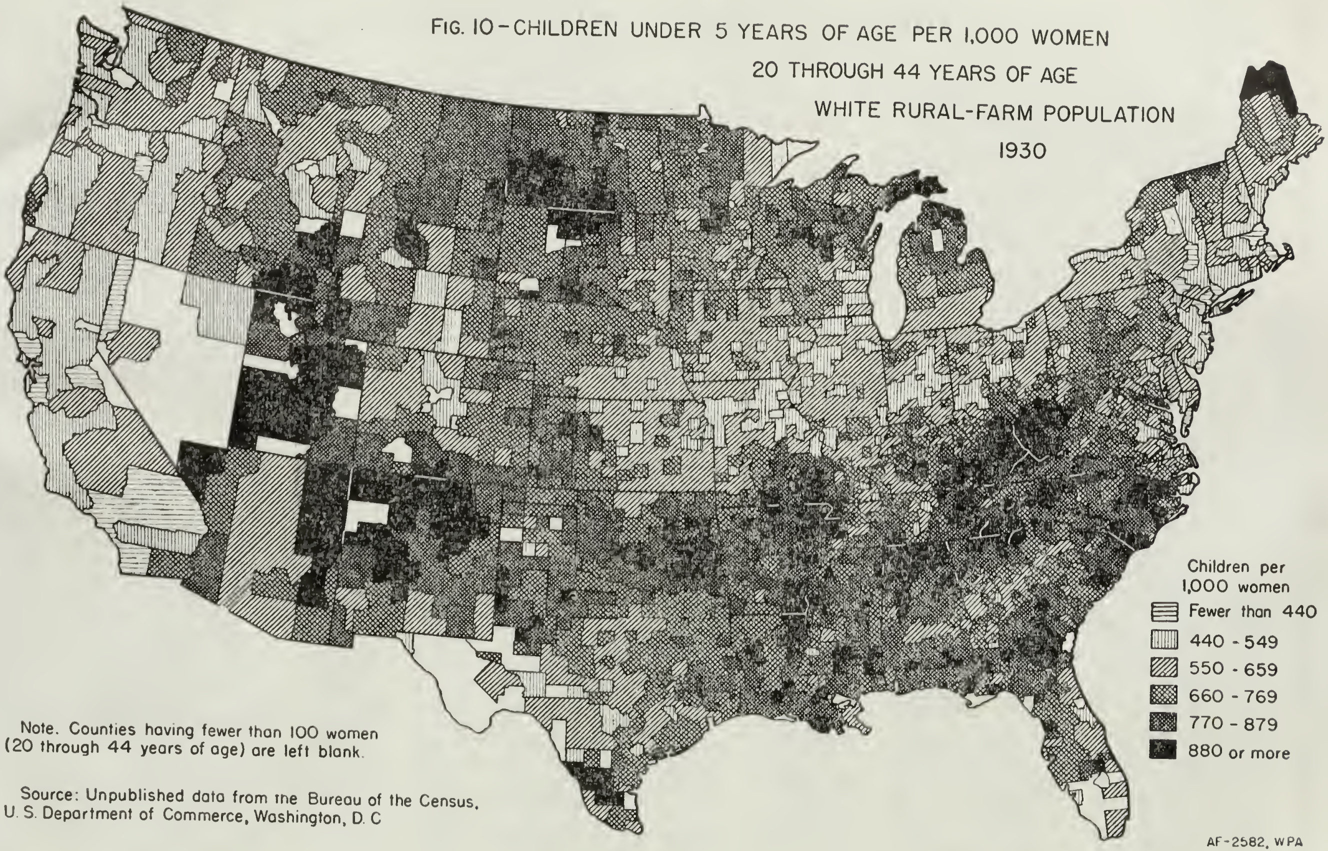
The major source of migrants to the survey area was nearby territory. Nearly 9 out of every 10 households and single persons who moved into these areas came from within the same States, with the same county contributing slightly more than half of that total.

Farm operators who left farms in the surveyed areas were more frequently replaced by farmers from nearby areas; nearly three-fourths of the "new farmers" came from within the same county. Most of them were young men, less than 35 years of age in 1940, and more than half of them had not had previous experience as farm operators.

Households moving into the farm areas appear to have been somewhat larger than those leaving these same areas. The out-migrant households more frequently consisted of 2 persons than of any other number, but among the in-migrants, 4-person households were more numerous. However, the larger households, those consisting of 5 or more persons, were no more frequent among the in- or out-migrants than among those who remained in the survey area throughout the decade. The average size of households moving away from the farm areas and those who lived continuously in the area were 3.7 and 3.8 persons, respectively; whereas, the average size of the households moving to these same areas was 4.1 persons.

Those individuals who were farm owners throughout the period were less mobile than the others in the sense that they were more likely to have lived on the same farm and that they were less likely to be among the migrants. Those

FIG. 10—CHILDREN UNDER 5 YEARS OF AGE PER 1,000 WOMEN 20 THROUGH 44 YEARS OF AGE WHITE RURAL-FARM POPULATION 1930


Children per 1,000 women
▤ Fewer than 440
▥ 440 - 549
▨ 550 - 659
▩ 660 - 769
▩ 770 - 879
■ 880 or more

Note. Counties having fewer than 100 women (20 through 44 years of age) are left blank.

Source: Unpublished data from the Bureau of the Census, U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C

AF-2582, WPA

who improved their tenure status during the period also were less frequent among the migrants. Tenants who retained their tenure status throughout the period were about equally represented among the migrants and nonmigrants, but loss of farm ownership definitely appears to have been a factor leading to migration away.

Information from the farm-population study in Montana for the years 1926–37 showed that of the 317 households moving out of the survey areas from 1926–36, 74 percent moved to other parts of Montana, 13 percent to Western States, 9 percent east, and the remainder moved southward or to Canada.

A study of farm-population changes in North Dakota during 1936 and 1937 showed that over one-half of the persons moving from farms went to a place in the same county and about two-thirds remained in the State. One-third of the migrants went to other States. The Pacific Coast States were the favorite destination of those who went outside North Dakota. Washington, Oregon, and California received more than half of the farm migrants from North Dakota. Over one-third of the out-of-State migrants moved to the neighboring States of Minnesota, South Dakota, and Montana. About 40 percent of all the farm migrants moving to some other place within North Dakota went to villages or cities within the State.

Sample surveys of farm-population movement in South Dakota during 1937 and 1938 indicated that 42.9 percent of the out-of-State migrants went to adjoining States; 42.7 percent to Western States including California, Oregon, Washington, Idaho, and Colorado; 10.7 percent to the east; and 3.7 percent moved to Southern States. During the 2 years, Minnesota received more of the migrants than any other State, with other leading States of destination being California, Oregon, Washington, and Iowa.

Indications are that recent migrations from the Northern Great Plains to the Pacific Coast States as well as to other States are particularly significant in regard to the economic status and prospects of the migrants. The volume of migration had apparently been large for several years before 1930. The recent migrants are characterized by a lack of ready capital for self-support and investment in new undertakings. The migrant farm operator or farm youth experienced in grain- and livestock-farming practices of the plains is poorly adapted to seasonal labor in specialty crops to which labor market he is often forced because of his lack of capital, skill, and opportunity to undertake a more permanent occupation.

Studies indicate that the choice of a destination is often an unplanned matter. Better guidance of migrants is greatly needed if the adjustment of man and resources is to be attained.

NATURAL INCREASE IN POPULATION OF THE NORTHERN GREAT PLAINS

There are very significant differentials in natural increase of the population in the five States according to residence. At the death rate generally prevailing in the rural population of the entire Nation in 1930, 440 children per 1,000 women suffice to replace the present population. In areas where the number of children under 5 years of age is fewer than 440 per 1,000 rural women 20–44 years of age, the rural population will not permanently replace itself. In areas where the number of children under 5 years of age is as high as 550 per 1,000 women 20–44 years of age, a 25-percent surplus of children above actual replacement needs is being produced, and so on.

The ratio of children to women in the farm population was 65 percent in excess of replacement in the Northern Great Plains in 1930. The ratio is less in villages and cities, but even in case of both of these groups in the Northern Plains it is well above a replacement rate.

The ratio for the total population was some 28 percent in excess of a replacement rate.

It would appear that in considering a desirable adjustment between people and the agricultural resources in the Great Plains extensive migration to other areas of economic opportunity must be provided for offsetting the considerable natural increase above replacement needs in the region. Opportunities in urban areas for rural youth, highly dependent upon equality of educational training for the rural young people, is apparently a necessity to keep from intensifying the present disparity in economic levels of living between rural and city areas.

MIGRATORY HARVEST LABORERS IN NORTH DAKOTA AND KANSAS

A study of harvest labor in North Dakota and Kansas reveals clear-cut differences between these two States in both stability and extent of demand for regular hired help or farm wage workers. In Kansas the demand for this labor was relatively small and highly stable. In North Dakota, on the other hand, a much larger demand, which fluctuated widely from season to season, was in evidence. It is probable that these differences largely result from the greater mechanization of Kansas farm operations and the consequent increased labor capacity and efficiency of the operators themselves, but the slightly greater diversification on farms covered by this study in North Dakota may have been partially responsible. In both States the employment of farm wage workers is at a low level. The greater percentage of farms in North Dakota having such unpaid family labor is probably due in part to the higher natural increase in that State as compared with Kansas. This also shows a piling up of youth on farms—not unemployed but underemployed.

The wheat-harvest period has been the time of heavy employment of all available local labor, and of considerable migrant or transient labor. It has been estimated that a minimum of 100,000 transient laborers were used in the wheat harvest in the 1920's. Need for this transient labor in the wheat harvest has rapidly diminished with the increased development and application of efficient mechanical devices. This process of mechanizing the wheat harvest, as typified by the use of the grain combine, is at a more highly developed stage in central and western Kansas than in North Dakota. About 90 percent of the wheat acreage in Kansas was "combined," while only some 25 percent of the North Dakota wheat acreage was combined in 1938. It has been estimated that about 25,000 transient laborers obtained work in the North Dakota wheat harvest in 1938. It is probable, however, that even with 50 percent efficiency in the distribution of available labor within the States, there would be no harvest work for any transient laborers. This is the situation in North Dakota, the leading spring-wheat State, where mechanization, as represented by the combine, was at only a 25-percent stage of development in 1938.

At present the labor supply for the wheat harvest stands in an inverse relationship to the small demand. All available evidence points to a further exaggeration in the future of this already significant unbalance. It is estimated that there were three men for every job open in the grain harvest of North Dakota in 1938, beyond the supply of resident farm labor and local labor.

A decreased dependence on urban areas for the wheat-harvest labor supply has been noted. In 1924, a little more than one-half of the hired harvest laborers in the Midwest Wheat Belt were farm reared. Nearly three-fourths of all hired farm labor, and even two-thirds of the transients, in the North Dakota wheat harvest in 1938 were farm reared.[1] More than one-third of the transients interviewed came from Minnesota, and one in seven came from Wisconsin homes.

Information concerning the age of the laborer indicates that youthfulness is a characteristic of the harvest worker. Half of all hired laborers were 25 years old or under, and nearly half of the transients were under 25 years of age.

The economic status of the laborers in the 1938 grain harvest in North Dakota was ascertained in terms of possession of a bank account, life insurance, or property ownership. Only about 1 in every 20 had any bank account, and only about one-sixth of the laborers carried any life insurance. Less than 5 percent of all the hired harvest hands owned any farm property, and less than 2 percent owned any real estate other than farm property.

Earnings of harvest laborers are rather low as shown by reports from 322 transient laborers. All had had grain-harvest work in some State in 1938. They were leaving North Dakota when interviewed, and there was little possibility of their obtaining other grain-harvest work that year. The average amount earned was $45, covering an average period of 17 days worked. These 322 transients reported a loss of some 14 days between harvest jobs and about 4½ days without pay while on jobs of the harvest. The actual costs incurred by these laborers between jobs after they had come to North Dakota, for meals and for other living expenses, amounted to $14. Their net earnings between the time they were first employed at any job and their last job in the small-grain harvest amounted to some $31. This still doesn't provide for the costs of the laborer for travel between States or for returning to his home or going to other employment. Of more than 200 hired harvest hands interviewed, none had net earnings of as much as $100, while the average net earning was well under $30.

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[1] See map opposite.

The harvest laborers, whether unpaid family workers, regular hired laborers, local workers, or transient laborers, are apparently alike in having the following characteristics: Low average earning power, a lack of financial status, and a lack of security.

TESTIMONY OF DONALD HAY—Resumed

POPULATION TRENDS IN NORTHERN GREAT PLAINS REGION

Mr. PARSONS. You have made some very fine studies of the migrant problem from the agricultural standpoint. From your studies, what have you found are the recent trends in population in the Northern Great Plains region?

Mr. HAY. The preliminary releases from the Census indicate that for Wyoming, Nebraska, and the two Dakotas, there is a net decline of some 132,000 between 1930 and 1940.

Mr. PARSONS. And that is from the purely agricultural sections, not from the towns and cities?

Mr. HAY. That is total population. The farm figures haven't been released as yet.

Chairman TOLAN. You mean it hasn't been broken down?

Mr. HAY. It hasn't been released as yet, the broken down data by farm and nonfarm.

Mr. PARSONS. What, in your opinion, has been the effect of the predominance of agriculture in the population distribution and movement?

Mr. HAY. The settlement of the Northern Great Plains was largely four families to the section. And that, from the beginning, has made for sparse settlement. The towns and villages and even the cities in the region are generally service stations to agriculture, and are also sparsely distributed.

Mr. PARSONS. What is the relation between the natural increase and population movement? And is this natural increase in the Great Plains region large or small in comparison to the country as a whole?

Mr. HAY. The natural increase over this region of births over deaths, for the farm population of the region, which is the important factor, is about 65 percent above replacement, and that has, of course, tended to make for movement. In comparison to the national figure, that is higher than the natural increase of the farm population in the Nation.

Mr. PARSONS. There has been a larger increase in the farm population than there has been in the cities, but it has moved on somewhere else, so it makes the picture show even more to the disadvantage of agriculture than it would naturally appear upon first study of the population figures?

Mr. HAY. Very decidedly.

Mr. PARSONS. What effect has the natural increase of the Northern Great Plains on the population pressure in those areas—a tendency to move them on?

Mr. **Hay.** Yes. There have been indications that the youth, who lost their outlets in industrial employment, have been piling up on the land, and some tendency for the outward movement to be larger in terms of families.

Mr. **Parsons.** When the committee held its Chicago hearing, we were investigating three types of migration: One was from the farm to industrial areas seeking employment at higher wages; one was the migration of the destitute individual seeking relief; and third was the natural trend and increase in population in Chicago. But we found that there were only a few thousands increase in that great metropolitan area of over 3,000,000. We didn't find the migration of the workers through the Corn Belt and the wheat belt as we expected to find it. I understand we used to have a lot of workers moving out of the middlewestern states, following the harvest in the Kansas wheat fields and Nebraska here, putting out the corn crop in the spring, going north till the harvest of wheat came along, working up in the Dakotas in the wheat threshing and then back through Nebraska for corn husking, moving back south. You used to have that movement, didn't you?

Mr. **Hay.** Very definitely.

Mr. **Parsons.** And they were not destitute workers. They were supporting themselves and getting fairly good wages, as farm wages go. Can you tell the committee what has happened to that old principle since you have had the drought here in this Great Plains area?

Mr. **Hay.** Well, there still are many people who come in for the wheat harvest—different laborers. In 1938, based on the study of harvest labor in North Dakota, we estimated that about 25,000 transient laborers came in from outside. to North Dakota, looking for work. We also found that after the local labor had picked up jobs available, there were about three transient laborers available for every job.

Mr. **Parsons.** How do you account for that?

Mr. **Hay.** An oversupply of labor for the work available.

DISPLACEMENT OF FARM LABOR BY MACHINERY

Mr. **Parsons.** What has machinery displacing farm labor on the farm had to do with creating this unemployment problem or creating the surplus of farm labor? What can you tell the committee in regard to that?

Mr. **Hay.** I believe it operates in two ways. It is definitely a factor in making for movement from the farms to the villages and towns, building up a surplus of available labor there. Then, too, on the farms the machine cuts down the man-hours and makes for the underemployment of the farm laborers available.

Mr. **Parsons.** What is the average price of the farm labor in the wheat harvest in the Dakota wheat fields?

Mr. **Hay.** Well, based on this 1938 survey, we found it ranged from under $2 up to about $3.50.

Mr. **Parsons.** Three and a half dollars a day?

Mr. **Hay.** Yes.

Mr. Parsons. Is that about a 10- or 12-hour day?

Mr. Hay. We found them still working long hours—10 or more.

Mr. Parsons. Still from sunup to sundown, as we used to do in the wheat fields of Illinois. But 25 or 30 years ago you had the wheat cut with the old binder. It was shocked in the fields. It took labor to cut it; it took labor to shock it. It was hauled to the machine, and anywhere from 8 or 9 to 15 or 20 employees were around the machine, putting it through, processing it, and taking it away. Now the individual farmer has his own combine that 1 or 2, or not more than 3 people go along through the fields, it is cut, threshed, and taken away. That has cut down the amount of farm labor needed for the harvest of wheat. Not so much has been taken away in the harvest of corn in proportion. But hasn't that created a great unemployment problem for labor on the farm, in the Great Plains area?

Mr. Hay. Very definitely. I would like to add one further word, that according to our data, the mechanization of the wheat harvest in North Dakota has, as measured by the part played by the combine, reached only about a 25-percent development stage, according to what we found in 1938; in other words, there is a great opportunity to increase the use of the machine there further.

Mr. Parsons. That means further displacement?

Mr. Hay. Further displacement of labor.

Mr. Parsons. Twenty-five or 30 years ago, or before the days of the tractor, you had been using horses and mules, both in the wheat and corn belt, in the States of the South, in the cotton fields. That stock tended to eat up the surplus of grains for their keep. Today the farmer is having to raise cash crops and sell the surplus on the market, in order to obtain oil and gasoline, and still more labor displacement machinery. Hasn't that created some of our large farm labor surplus we have had in the last few years despite the drought conditions here and elsewhere?

Mr. Hay. Yes. It doubtless has. The farmer has been forced into adopting machine practices because of the apparent greater savings in the cost of production.

Mr. Parsons. Has the manufacture of these new labor-displacing machines employed as many people in the manufacture of them as they have displaced, do you think?

Mr. Hay. That is a moot question. In my own opinion, no. And the further factor that displacement has not made it possible for the displaced labor, lacking technical ability, to get the jobs in the manufacture of those machines; the displaced man is very seldom the man to pick up that job in the factory.

Mr. Parsons. I think you are correct. However, when you begin talking about calling a holiday for machinery, almost everybody says you are trying to fight progress. It is my thought that if we had put in as much time trying to call a holiday upon labor-displacing machinery, not only in the fields but in the mills and the factories, as Hugh Johnson put in on codes under the N. R. A., that we would probably have had a couple of millions of these people back to work, down in the wheat fields, corn fields, mills, and factories. And there are a lot of new inventions already patented that would displace still more thousands and thousands of workers, that are being withheld from going on the market because it hasn't been necessary to do it yet. There are many of our manufacturing concerns that have those patents for further displacing labor.

What suggestions do you have to make to this committee upon how we can help in this problem of migration? We can't force any larger rainfall, that is true. We might aid and assist in some further irrigation projects, if they are feasible in the long run. But what can this committee do, what suggestions do you have to make, that will aid us in the solution of this migrant farm problem?

SUGGESTIONS FOR AID IN MIGRANT FARM PROBLEM

PARTNERSHIP USE OF MACHINERY

Mr. Hay. That would be again in the field of opinion. Following up the lead you just discussed—I believe other people who will testify will point out some social inventions that will help to make for better use of these mechanical inventions, such things as partnership use of machinery, where the small operator, working along with his neighbor, is able to get the advantage of the large machine and still not displace his labor. In considering this problem of migration in the northern Great Plains one must take into consideration this large natural increase, assumed to be about 65 percent over the number necessary for replacement each year. This forces one to think in terms of other areas or of a considerable development of other employment within this region.

DEVELOPMENT OF EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES

Mr. Parsons. And what opportunity is there for any other type of employment within the region?

Mr. Hay. Recent years and present development don't point out any outstanding opportunities. There are opportunities in stabilizing agriculture, the various programs that are being carried on, the development of more irrigation. I think that, also, we might point out that this movement out of the area isn't the only important thing. The continual shifting within the region involves a terrific social cost—social and economic cost—to the people.

Mr. Parsons. Congressman Curtis this morning commented upon the removal of one out of four people. Now, we are not only concerned—this committee and the American public—about the one that is on the move but of the serious condition of the three left there. Now, as the chairman has stated repeatedly, we have appropriated millions, even billions, of dollars to handle interstate commerce in coal, steel, iron, textiles, and other goods, but we have never appropriated a dime until now to study the interstate commerce of human individuals. And that is what we are doing now. It is a big problem. There are about a million farm families on the move. We have found a lot of migration of agricultural workers that are self-supporting, and we don't want to change that at all. They have been needed in the past and they are needed now more than ever before. The Dakotas and Great Plains could never have reaped their wheat in the old days if we hadn't had the migration of self-supporting farm labor. They were migrants; we never thought of them as such, but they were. But we are finding more on the road that are hoping, as our witnesses have indicated today, and as we have heard just scores of them at other places, that the work is better down at this town or over at this turnpike or out in this valley, and so they pull up their stakes and start crossing the State lines. Now, I think we ought to keep them anchored at home as much as possible, but we know that people are not going to sit down and starve to death. They are going to move if they think they can improve their condition. And that is why your grandparents and mine moved off the Atlantic seaboard and moved west and west and west until we reached the end of the frontier. If we had still more land to settle, as we had up until the last 10 years, we would solve this problem, because people would pull stakes and go to the new lands; but we have reached the end of the frontier. We are either going to create artificial frontiers or go back to the old horse-and-buggy days.

Now, what suggestions do you have to make to this committee as to how we can help in this problem?

GUIDANCE OF PEOPLE IN PARTICULAR AREA

Mr. Hay. I think, first of all, the fact that you are having this hearing, pointing out that there is such a problem, is an important beginning. I think it is necessary that we think in terms of guidance for the people in a particular area, where it seems, for good adjustment, there are more people than that area can support. And it is guidance that we need—something now in existence, but better support of it, probably, recognizing the problem. And then thinking of our boys and girls growing up and going into other parts of the country, we are going to have to think of their education, where they can meet conditions on an equal basis in bigger places, such as Chicago and New York.

Mr. Parsons. But one-quarter to one-third of these 4,000,000 people who are on the road are children. Of course, this has appeared in a big way only since we have had modern transportation facilities, highways and cheap automobiles. The big problem has developed in the last decade. It is becoming larger in numbers and more serious as the years go by, but we are finding that these children in the fields and the dairy farms can really earn money for the family, more money than the grown-ups, the parents in the family, and they are used in these trips for that purpose. They are getting no education except experience, if they are out in the wide-open spaces, and it is going to present a great illiteracy problem to us by and by. We can't limit all migration, and we wouldn't want to, but something must be done, you agree, by the Federal Government to aid and assist the States in this problem. Do you have any further suggestions to make as to how we might help in this problem?

STABILIZING POPULATION IN HOME AREA

Mr. **Hay**. The statement that has already been presented of thinking in terms of stabilizing the people in their home area, I think, is well worth keeping in mind. That may necessitate examination of the size of unit that is needed to support a family, and of pointing some of our developments more toward the family-sized farm.

Mr. **Parsons**. Now, there are two schools of thought that we have heard advanced since we have been out on this investigation. One is to continue to keep giving these people loans on whatever they have planted, so much acreage in corn and so much in forage, or whatever it is, thereby placing them deeper and deeper in debt in order that then they might hold all their foundation stock or their livestock that they have at the present time. If they were assured that the next year and the next year the rainfall was going to be better and better, he might come out from under it, but we are not helping the farmer when we load him up with debt, with the drought condition continuing year after year as it is in Nebraska. Isn't it better for him to transfer his operations from grain crops to forage crops, to try to limit the raising of so much cash grain crops; isn't it better to try to encourage the use of irrigated gardens, rather than to place him deeper and deeper in debt?

Mr. **Hay**. Very definitely. There may be a time—granted it is a transition period—when, in trying to help that individual, in this area or elsewhere, the expenditure of public funds is justified, to keep body and soul together.

Mr. **Parsons**. That is being done through the Farm Security Administration. They are doing a good job of that in Nebraska.

Mr. **Hay**. Very definitely. In the entire region, in my opinion.

Mr. **Parsons**. Then if the Federal Government is going to come along and loan the farmer so many bushels of corn or so many bushels of other grains and so many tons of fodder to help carry his stock through—that is only going to load him up with debt. It would be better if he got rid of some of this stock and put his land back to forage that will be more drought resisting and give him a larger yield than it is to put it all into grains, and work out an economic program there that will be helpful to him not only this year but in the years to come, if drought is still here, rather than to load him up with debt, which will finally take his farm and his stock and he will have nothing left. It naturally appeals to the farmer to offer him all these things, unless he is a sound economic thinker; then he might think the thing through, and see that he is going to be worse off in the end by accepting these things, even if they are tendered to him.

Mr. **Hay**. There are probably more and more farmers who would support that statement than 10 years ago.

Mr. **Parsons**. There is no doubt about that. I have been very greatly impressed—and I don't think I have seen the worst areas by any means—with the determination and fortitude of the farmers here in Nebraska. I was just thinking, comparing that with some of the farmers down in my part of the country, in the Ozarks, where we have some 40 to 60 inches of rainfall annually. Now, these boys, if they were back in Illinois, with this much rainfall, if they've got the determination and fortitude they have here, with 7 years of drought in a row, how happy they would be back in Illinois, with all the rainfall we have there.

Thank you very much.

Chairman TOLAN. Thank you, Mr. Hay. You have presented a very fine statement.

TESTIMONY OF FREDERIC H. COOK, ALBION, NEBR.

Mr. PARSONS. State your name and address and your business to the reporter here, for the record, please.

Mr. COOK. Frederic H. Cook, Albion, Nebr.

Mr. PARSONS. Where were you born, Mr. Cook?

Mr. COOK. Right in there, about 3 or 4 miles from Albion.

Mr. PARSONS. You have lived there most of your life?

Mr. COOK. I have been there—you might say, altogether I have probably been away from there 2 years.

Mr. PARSONS. What was the occupation of your father?

Mr. COOK. Farmer.

Mr. PARSONS. You were born on the farm?

Mr. COOK. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. Are you married?

Mr. COOK. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. How many children do you have?

Mr. COOK. Three.

Mr. PARSONS. All grown?

Mr. COOK. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. What are your children doing? Are they employed?

Mr. COOK. Yes; one of them is at the present time not employed, but he has got a job, he is just waiting until about October, until it starts. And the other two, they are both working in a filling station.

Mr. PARSONS. What are you doing at the present time?

Mr. COOK. I am operating a filling station.

Mr. PARSONS. You have it leased, do you?

Mr. COOK. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. Or do you work for so much per day?

Mr. COOK. I have it leased; I have had it about a year.

Mr. PARSONS. What did you do prior to that time?

Mr. COOK. I have practically always been a farmer, up until about a year ago.

Mr. PARSONS. Did you ever own a farm of your own?

Mr. COOK. I did.

Mr. PARSONS. How many acres?

Mr. COOK. One hundred and sixty.

Mr. PARSONS. Just tell the committee and the audience, briefly, about how you came into possession of that farm and what other lands you have owned and what your experience has been and what loans you have had against it and how you lost it and where you migrated to, if you migrated—just very briefly.

Mr. COOK. Well, I had an 80, to start out with, that I got through my folks, and paid so much every year. Later on, when the folks wasn't no more, I acquired another 80. Well, I put up improvements, and I was back about 22 or 23 hundred dollars, and then when the drought hit us in 1934, that is where my trouble began. In 1924 we were hailed out, practically, the whole county. There would be a storm come up 1 day, plow a strip a mile or maybe two wide, just a strip, and then the next week another maybe would come, and it pretty well cleaned us out; the following year after that we had a mighty good corn crop, though.

Mr. **Parsons**. In 1935?

Mr. **Cook**. In 1925 and in 1926 it just simply got too dry for us up there and we didn't get much of anything. In 1927 we had a good crop. In 1928 it got kind of dry and we didn't raise much of anything, but you take a man that is operating with a little livestock, you have to have a good deal of feed to keep things going, and I was not a livestock farmer, but a grain farmer.

Mr. **Parsons**. Did you grow forage crops, or did you expect to buy grain?

Mr. **Cook**. I had 40 acres of alfalfa; at that time we didn't need any forage crops. We would cut a little corn fodder to make it. If you have a field, take 10 acres of corn, good corn, and cut your fodder with the grain in it, I think it will make about as good roughage as 10 acres of forage will; and in those days there wasn't such a terrible drought.

Mr. **Parsons**. I was up through Albion yesterday.

Mr. **Cook**. And then in 1929 we had a pretty good crop, and after that until 1934 our crops tapered off. In 1930 we didn't get much; 1931 we didn't get much; 1932 we didn't get much; 1933 we didn't get much; and 1934—that, of course, took everything.

Mr. **Parsons**. Was that drought, or—you were not in this flood area in 1934 or 1935 were you?

Mr. **Cook**. 1934.

Mr. **Parsons**. That was in the Republican Valley?

Mr. **Cook**. No; there was an awful flood there in 1929; we had a 13-inch rain there that just raised plenty of trouble with us.

Mr. **Parsons**. Of course, the water ran off and still the soil didn't get much?

Mr. **Cook**. It washed the ground bad, eroded it bad, but it didn't do no harm; it seemed like the crop came right on and kept right along.

Mr. **Parsons**. But you kept going behind with your finances every year from 1928 on?

Mr. **Cook**. Well, from 1928 on. If I had quit in 1928 I could have invested that money in Government bonds; just sat down and done nothing and still have plenty.

Mr. **Parsons**. You borrowed five thousand against the 160 acres?

Mr. **Cook**. About $5,300, and a lot of that went for improvements.

Mr. **Parsons**. How much did you owe in 1928 when you say you could have quit out there?

Mr. **Cook**. Well, I owed about $2,300.

Mr. **Parsons**. From that day on you kept going deeper and deeper into debt?

Mr. Cook. I kept going deeper and deeper from that day on, and then in 1934, when that drought hit us, there was no feed to be gotten, you just had to buy what you could get, and we paid as high as $21 for a load of oat straw.

Mr. Parsons. Yes.

Mr. Cook. $21 a ton, which is way more than straw ever has been worth or ever will be. Well, then, after hay got way up there and lots of the alfalfa was pretty risky to buy, because they'd water it to keep the leaves on, and watered it too heavy. I have seen alfalfa that when a man went to cut the wires on the bale you couldn't get it loose with a crowbar.

Mr. Parsons. Frozen?

Mr. Cook. Yes. They knew we had to have it, and they just pushed it off on us.

Mr. Parsons. What year did you finally throw up your hands?

Mr. Cook. In 1936. In 1935 we had a pretty fair crop. I had 14 stacks of hay there; I just kept waiting and waiting and waiting. Finally, we had a sale on the 26th day of August, and I had about 8 or 9 tons of alfalfa hay and a hundred bushels of corn.

Mr. Parsons. Did you sell out, or did the Land Bank take the farm?

Mr. Cook. Not at that time. Before I did have my sale, I went up to Wheeler County—there's a lot of that sand-hill land you can go up and lease two or three sections for maybe a couple of hundred dollars. Me and another fellow went up there and thought if we could get hold of something like that we would take that and take our livestock up there and winter them and come back the next spring and take up right where we laid off there.

Mr. Parsons. You tried it 1 year?

Mr. Cook. We was going to, but there was too many looking for stuff. Everything was practically leased, and if it wasn't it was just somebody that was holding us up, and more than it amounted to. I came home and said, "There is only one thing left, to have the sale." My son was working out at Denver, Colo., and we went out there.

Mr. Parsons. You still kept the land here?

Mr. Cook. Yes; I kept the land, didn't even settle up with the bank for the sale there. We went out there for a couple of weeks and then came home.

Mr. Parsons. You didn't find any bonanza out in Colorado?

Mr. Cook. Well, I could have got a job provided I could have got started right away and stayed right there, but I had my other interests here to look into and my farm, so I knew there was no use in taking the job. So there was a fellow had some property in Primrose, Nebr., 5 acres, pretty well improved, a little acreage, so I took it. I traded my equity for it.

Mr. Parsons. How much did you think it was worth, the 5 acres?

Mr. Cook. I thought the 5 acres was worth about $3,000.

Mr. Parsons. And it was free of encumbrance?

Mr. Cook. Free of encumbrance.

Mr. Parsons. You traded your farm even up for that?

Mr. Cook. I traded my equity for that. I figured there was no way out at all, and I figured I had better have something out of it, so I traded. After I made the deal and we moved over to Primrose and I lived there and farmed it. I could do some truck farming and rent more land down in the valley, but it was dry that year. We didn't raise nothing, so I went out to Colorado and worked there 4 weeks, threshing, and then came back. Then I went up in the hay fields and put up hay, and when we got done, why I went to Iowa and picked corn.

Mr. PARSONS. What kind of wages did you get in the harvest?

Mr. COOK. Out there in Colorado we got $2 a day, and we worked from daylight until dark.

Mr. PARSONS. And board?

Mr. COOK. Board; yes.

Mr. PARSONS. Well, that is equivalent to probably an extra dollar a day, your board and room?

Mr. COOK. No room; we slept in barns, strawstacks, or wherever we could find a place where the mosquitoes would not eat you alive. It would be, but on the other hand—it was entirely too long hours.

Mr. PARSONS. But you're in the filling station business now. What is your revenue per month operating this filling station?

Mr. COOK. Oh, that varies. There is some days we make good, and some days we don't make so good.

Mr. PARSONS. About how much do you make a month out of it?

Mr. COOK. About $30 a month. About that.

Mr. PARSONS. Have you ever applied for relief?

Mr. COOK. Never have.

Mr. PARSONS. You have never been on relief?

Mr. COOK. No, sir; I don't want any.

Mr. PARSONS. Never on W. P. A.?

Mr. COOK. No, sir; never have.

Mr. PARSONS. Have the relief agencies helped you indirectly?

Mr. COOK. What is the question, please?

Mr. PARSONS. Have the relief agencies helped you indirectly, do you think?

Mr. COOK. Indirectly?

Mr. PARSONS. Yes.

Mr. COOK. Yes; in a way they have, in the line of business. For example, here's a man that drives to work on the W. P. A. He has to drive a car to work. I sell 5 gallons of gas, and there's 5 cents profit. You can't put it any way but that. It helps indirectly.

Mr. PARSONS. If he didn't have the money from relief, he wouldn't have the money to buy the gas?

Mr. COOK. No.

Mr. PARSONS. How old are you?

Mr. COOK. Fifty-two.

Mr. PARSONS. Do you still want to go back to farming?

Mr. COOK. Well, if I did I'd want to go on a small place, say 40 acres.

Mr. PARSONS. Have you got any of those 40's picked out, here in Nebraska any place?

Mr. COOK. No; I wouldn't think of it at all.

Mr. PARSONS. Where would you go?

Mr. Cook. Back to Iowa.

Mr. Parsons. Ever been in Iowa—farmed any there?

Mr. Cook. Well, sir, in the first place there's different conditions existing under which to farm. If you own a 40-acre place there, you have that homestead exemption law.

Mr. Parsons. What is that?

Mr. Cook. That reduces your taxes, you see. And on the other hand, by reducing the taxes, it keeps the people right there on the land and prevents this farming on a big scale. Now, you take the difference between Nebraska: I know parties that are farming 4, 5, 6, and 7 quarters of land, and they are not farming it. They just go out there with their tractor and list their corn right in the rust, as we call it, and they'll sweep over it a little bit and they're finished. They just figure on the conservation check they get off this land; it is conditions such as that. Well, they'll rent another farm here and another farm there. The families that have lived on the farms, what are they to do but move to town, and they're not able to get in a little business of their own nor anything else. First thing you know, they're on W. P. A.

Mr. Parsons. This is what you call——

Mr. Cook (interposing). Suitcase farming, as they call it out in the west.

Mr. Parsons. And that is one individual that rents several farms?

Mr. Cook. Yes; one in this neighborhood and another one in that neighborhood and another one in some other neighborhood. And he'll live in town and go out and put his wheat in and wait until the harvest comes, and run his combine over the wheat and rent it for another year if he can, and then he's got two crops and he'll rent another place. This is now going on in our corn and stock farming area.

Mr. Parsons. Is that in Iowa or Nebraska?

Mr. Cook. Southwestern or western Nebraska, and up in there is what I am referring to—practically all of the western two-thirds of Nebraska.

Mr. Parsons. So you would really want to go back to Iowa?

Mr. Cook. Either to Iowa or to northwestern Missouri, is where I would go if I went back on the farm.

Mr. Parsons. Well, this experience is somewhat the general picture that we have from these men and families in the same class that you have described for us here. Thank you very much for coming before the committee.

Chairman Tolan. Mr. Cook, just one question.

Mr. Cook. All right.

Chairman Tolan. You and other witnesses this morning have portrayed before us very bad conditions in the Republican Valley in Nebraska. Have you any Democratic Valley in the State? [Laughter.]

Mr. Cook. Democratic Valley?

Chairman Tolan. No Democratic Valley. Thank you very much, Mr. Cook.

Mr. Kramer. I should like to offer for the record at this point a letter from E. M. Brookens, of Kimball, S. Dak.

The letter referred to reads as follows:

KIMBALL, S. DAK., *September 5, 1940.*

MR. A. KRAMER.

DEAR SIR: Have been reading about your committee on migration. Now, I live in the middle of South Dakota, and I and my family try to make a living running a gas station on Highway No. 16, which can just be done during the summer tourist season.

Last winter we got in debt to the jobber all we dared to, and now we face another winter trying to find a job, all of which is nothing to you or anyone else that I can find, except this: If I was only a farmer, there would be several committees and expensive organizations breaking their necks to help me to stay here.

How about the small businessman ever needing some help? Don't you know that some of us have suffered the same as the farmer with year after year of poor crops, and on top of that the terrible price cutting by the jobbers in the gas and oil business crowding the retailer out. What is a man to do anyway?

I have tried twice to get a loan from the loan agency of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation of both Minneapolis and Sioux Falls. Have contacted the Mitchell Bank and tried to get a little help to plant 15 acres of land that goes with this filling station from the farm officials here, but can't do any of those things because I have a business and don't need it. Yes; I have a business that in winter makes a wonderful profit selling about 35 gallons of gasoline a day at cut rates to trucks. What is to become of such as us? Just because a man isn't on relief he is not supposed to need anything. I am 55 years old, but not 65, so where I come in at I don't know, except that if I was a damn farmer I would get everything from free groceries and medical care for the whole family to seed feed and all other loans and privileges. Did you ever think of that? Well, it's time someone did. I also notice in this article in the Daily Republic, of Mitchell, S. Dak., which I enclose, that after worrying about the migrants, which I always thought was a family away from home, wandering from job to job, it finally gets back to helping the dear farmer stay on his land, where he is not and never was a migrant, but if any money is put out you bet they will get it, not the poor, hard-working, deserving devils who always did get along some way and are in the same stricken district, with no rain and plenty of grasshoppers and beetles.

Well, I don't suppose anyone will ever read this far, but I can't sleep anyhow, so I might as well be writing, as it sort of eases a person's weary soul.

Good-bye and good luck with the migrants, as I'll soon be one with my family of three.

Yours truly,

E. M. BROOKENS.

TESTIMONY OF E. A. WILLSON, EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR, PUBLIC WELFARE BOARD OF NORTH DAKOTA, REPRESENTING GOVERNOR JOHN MOSES, OF NORTH DAKOTA

Chairman TOLAN. Mr. Willson.

Mr. PARSONS. Will you take a seat and give your name and address and title and whom you represent to the reporter for the record?

Mr. WILLSON. E. A. Willson, executive director, Public Welfare Board of North Dakota, formerly research specialist in rural social organization, North Dakota Agricultural Experiment Station, and representing Hon. John Moses, Governor of North Dakota.

Mr. PARSONS. We appreciate your coming here, Mr. Willson.

Chairman TOLAN. And, Mr. Willson, I wish at this time to ask that you be kind enough to convey the good wishes of this committee to Governor Moses for the way he is helping and assisting us. I am acquainted with him, and he is a very fine man, and you give him my very best wishes, will you?

Mr. WILLSON. Thank you.

Chairman TOLAN. Now, I want to say, Mr. Willson, not with any idea of cutting you short, but we have two more witnesses before the recess, and the committee has read your statement, and speaking for myself alone, as chairman of this committee, I think it is one of the most valuable statements that so far have been presented to this committee.

Mr. WILLSON. Thank you.

Chairman TOLAN. And after all is said and done, it isn't what you say here so much as what we put in the record, because on the record we will make our recommendations to Congress. Now, I wish you would say anything you have to say to the committee, without reading the entire statement, any thought that you want to get over. The committee would be delighted to hear you.

(The prepared statement mentioned is as follows:)

STATEMENT BY E. A. WILLSON, EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR, PUBLIC WELFARE BOARD OF NORTH DAKOTA, FORMERLY RESEARCH SPECIALIST IN RURAL SOCIAL ORGANIZATION, NORTH DAKOTA AGRICULTURAL EXPERIMENT STATION, REPRESENTING HON. JOHN MOSES, GOVERNOR OF NORTH DAKOTA

1. CAUSES OF MIGRATION OF AGRICULTURAL FAMILIES AND OF THEIR INABILITY TO ESTABLISH PERMANENT TENURE ON THE LAND

The migration of agricultural families in North Dakota due to their inability to establish permanent tenure first came to the attention of public officials in 1925 when the Federal agricultural census showed for the first time a considerable decrease in the number of farms in the western part of the State. In 1926 the North Dakota Experiment Station made a study designed primarily to determine the causes for this migration of farm families. The results of this study were reported in the North Dakota Agricultural College Experiment Station Bulletin No. 221 under the title, "Rural Changes in Western North Dakota" (see exhibit A[1]). This study showed that a very considerable proportion of the original homesteaders in western North Dakota had migrated out of the State or moved to town, either selling their claims to neighboring farmers or abandoning them. The principal reason why most of these settlers moved from the farm was because their units were too small for economic operation.

When most of western North Dakota was settled, the Federal land settlement laws limited the homesteader to the acquisition of 160 acres of land, a unit entirely inadequate to maintain a family in an area of light rainfall and where a very considerable proportion of the land is nontillable. When the rich Red River Valley was settled, the Federal settlement laws permitted the settler to acquire a homestead, a tree claim, and a pre-emption, a total of 480 acres, and some settlers acquired much larger acreages through the purchase of military land warrants or college scrip. When western North Dakota was settled, however, the tree-claim and pre-emption laws had been repealed and the enlarged Homestead Act of 1909, which permitted homesteading of 320 acres, had not yet been enacted.

Prior to the depression beginning in 1929, the migration of settlers from western North Dakota caused little public concern. It was a desirable evolution from the standpoint of a successful agricultural economy in western North Dakota in that it made possible an increase in the size of farms to an economic unit, and the land was getting into the hands of the best farmers. The people who moved from the area migrated to Canada or further west in the United States where they either secured land or employment. The adverse effects of this movement were felt principally by the business and professional people in the towns and villages or in the social institutions which had been built up, such as schools, churches, etc. Business, professional, and social services in excess of the need had been established in most of the area when the country was homesteaded.

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[1] Accepted as an exhibit and placed in the files of the committee.

The normal readjustment which had taken place and which would eventually have resulted in satisfactory economic farming units and a sound agricultural economy was interrupted by the depression of 1929. The unemployment which resulted from the depression made it impossible for farmers, who were leaving the farms, and for the townspeople, whose services were no longer needed because of the reduced farm population, to find profitable employment. Some of these people moved out of the State, but a very large number were stranded in the towns and villages, and as they exhausted their resources were forced to seek public assistance.

The drouth, grasshopper plague, and rust of the years 1933 to 1936, inclusive, accentuated the movement from farms in western North Dakota. Many farmers who had been able to stay on the land up to that time, through mortgaging their lands and chattels and refinancing these mortgages with Federal agricultural credit agencies and through State and local feed and seed loans, were finally forced off the land and onto the relief rolls in town. A considerable number migrated out of the State, most of them going west. The migration of agricultural families from the farms was further accentuated in some areas by the Federal land-purchase program under the United States Department of Agriculture, which was designed to take out of production land unsuited for cropping and convert it into grazing areas.

During the past 2 years an entirely new and different type of migration of agricultural families from the farms has begun. This movement, which is growing very rapidly, is most noticeable in the eastern and central areas of North Dakota where heretofore there has been little if any serious migration from the farms. This movement is caused by farmers, mostly tenants, being forced off the land by owners and large operators who are able to increase the size of their farm units very profitably because of the benefit payments of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration program. Well-to-do operators, some of whom live in town, are finding that it is exceedingly profitable to operate large units with a maximum of power and large machinery and a minimum of labor, due to the practical elimination of risk as a result of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration payments. If their crop is a failure, the Agricultural Adjustment Administration payments or crop insurance covers taxes or rent and the low operating costs. If they secure a good crop, their profits, including Agricultural Adjustment Administration payments, are enormous. Following are excerpts from letters and reports from some North Dakota county welfare boards giving example cases of migratory farm labor and stranded agricultural families: (Fictitious names are used throughout. Original reports on file at Public Welfare Board of North Dakota.)

A well-to-do farmer in the Red River Valley, who has in the past operated 11 quarter sections, increased his holdings to 21 quarter sections and forced 3 families off from the land into town, where they are on relief. These families were unable to rent farms because of the keen competition for land on the part of the big operators hoping to benefit from the Agricultural Adjustment Administration program.

* * * * * * *

In one county in the western part of the State, 10 operators control 70 sections of land.

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Cass County Welfare Board,
Fargo, N. Dak., August 29, 1940.

Mr. E. A. Willson,
Executive Director, Public Welfare Board, Bismarck, N. Dak.

Dear Mr. Willson: I am enclosing reports made on four families which we feel are typical of families in this locality who were left stranded from North Dakota farms and also left behind in the fall after the beet work is completed.

I hesitate to put in the exact number of cases that we have of this type in the county, but a very conservative and close estimate of this would be probably 10 to 15 Mexican families who have gained residence in the county and will be relief charges indefinitely unless some rehabilitation work is done with them.

The number of families who have been forced off the farms or have never been able to get a start on a farm as they would desire to do I would place at better than 200. These 200 would represent cases that I would not hesitate at all in recommending as being families who could be easily rehabilitated. Of course, we do have many more families that are less adaptable to rehabilitation who will undoubtedly be permanent burdens upon the Government for a good share of their yearly maintenance.

I hope that these reports will be of some assistance to you, and if there is anything further or more specific that you want in regard to these cases or others please feel free to call upon us for same. I am sorry that we did not have these reports in before. I was planning on getting the report to you the first part of September.

Very truly yours,

R. M. Parkins,
Executive Secretary, Cass County Welfare Board.

[Fictitious names are used throughout. Original report on file at Public Welfare Board of North Dakota]

F. Henry Brown—Stranded farmer

Name	*Date of birth*
Father: F. Henry Brown	February 28, 1890
Mother: Mary	April 27, 1890
Family:	
Laura	June 1, 1919
John	December 1, 1920
William	December 24, 1923
Carl	June 12, 1925

Mr. Brown is spending every spare minute trying to locate a farm to rent. He then plans to make application for a standard loan at the Farm Security Administration office and really commence to live again on a farm. You see, he only discontinued farming in November 1939, but 1 year on Work Projects Administration has convinced him that this continual struggle to pay rent, fuel, clothing, school expenses, and groceries for a family of six on $48 a month is no joke. He is anxiously checking the amount of rainfall in various sections of this locality. He hopes to find a farm where he can reasonably expect a crop most seasons. Seven crop failures in succession forced him off the farm a year ago.

Mr. Brown farmed from 1914 through 1919. The first 8 years near Lisbon, and the balance on the home farm of 320 acres near Enderlin. He has always rented. When he planned to renew his contract in the fall of 1939 he found out he would have to mortgage every chattel he owned to pay rent for corn, pasture land, and seed for the next year. That would mean he would be penniless if this year's crop were also a failure. He preferred to have a sale and try to get work at the Armour packing plant in West Fargo. When he failed to secure employment, Work Projects Administration was the only alternative.

Now this farm year is history. There was no grain crop and very little feed raised on the farm he left a year ago. In addition to drought and grasshopper infestation the Mormon crickets have made a good beginning. That is why he feels he must find a safer locality to which to again start farming operations. He and his wife and family all want to get back on the farm, and their united interest and enthusiasm should make this possible.

The two older children have given up trying to go on in high school, as they had planned. Laura found part-time work in a doctor's office for a few months and is now hoping to get work in a laundry in Fargo. John has earned as high as $20 a month doing extra jobs in a filling station during the summer. He is anxious to help with stock on a farm instead of doing part-time work in a filling station.

This family cannot begin again on a farm without a standard loan. They are pinning their faith to the Farm Security Administration to give them a new start in life.

[Fictitious names are used throughout. Original report on file at Public Welfare Board of North Dakota]

John Johnson—Stranded farmer

Name	*Date of birth*
Father: John Johnson	Aug. 18, 1885.
Mother: Anna Dahl	June 20, 1901.
Family:	
Henry	Jan. 30, 1927.
Delores	Jan. 3, 1931.
Jean	Dec. 15, 1930.
Martha	Jan. 11, 1932.
Roy	June 22, 1928.
Jack	July 25, 1929.
Edward	May 6, 1933.
Howard	Oct. 18, 1934.
Richard	Feb. 2, 1936.
Dorothy	Sept. 25, 1938.

John Johnson and his family of 10 children are now living in a village of Horace, 15 miles southwest of Fargo. Mr. Johnson has been employed on Works Progress Administration since August 1938. He has worked regularly, except for a few weeks during the harvest seasons, when the projects were closed because the men could find work on farms during that season. It is necessary to put in supplementation every month in order that this family may even exist. With 7 sons growing up the decided advantage of this family growing up on a farm is very evident.

Mr. Johnson's whole background has been rural. He was born near Christine, N. Dak., on a farm, finished the eighth grade in a rural school nearby, then worked for his father on the home farm until he was 26 years of age, when he rented the home farm. Two years later he married, and 6 years later he purchased the home farm, which he operated until 1930, when he lost it. He then moved to Davenport, where he rented 200 acres of land on a 50–50 basis, and operated it until late in 1937, when they were forced to have an auction sale of their farm chattels.

Early in 1934, feed and seed loans were needed, then resettlement grants, confinement, and other medical care, and finally direct relief to supplement farm labor. Works Progress Administration was the last resort. It was impossible to care for this large family on proceeds from farm labor. Who knows, that if the big drought had not come up, this family might still be living on the farm near Christine.

Mr. Johnson is an honest, industrious individual, still doing his level best in spite of discouraging difficulties.

[Fictitious names are used throughout. Original report on file at Public Welfare Board of North Dakota

Immediate family: Surname, Curairo. *Address,* Third Street South

First names	Date of birth	Place of birth
Man: Juan	Feb. 11, 1899	Mexico.
Woman: Laura Fernandez	Dec. 4, 1918	Alabama.
Children:		
Marie	Mar. 6, 1937	North Dakota.
Gene	Jan. 15, 1939	Do.
Baby	Apr. 12, 1940	Do.

Relatives: Raymond Fernandez, brother of Mrs. Curairo; Martha Olson, mother of Mrs. Curairo.

Employers: Seminole, Okla.; Sabin, Minn.; Durbin, N. Dak.

FAMILY HISTORY

In December of 1935 Mr. and Mrs. Curairo made application to this agency for assistance. They were residing on lower Front Street and had been in Fargo since October 21, 1935. They had moved to this location when they came to town from work in the beet fields near Sabin, Minn.

At that time Mr. Curairo informed us that he was born February 11, 1899, in Mexico. He had no education and could neither read nor write. He had left Mexico at the age of 15 and had settled in the State of Oklahoma. While there he met a Caucasian woman by the name of Laura Fernandez and they were married November 1, 1934, in Wewoka, Okla. (We have never been able to verify this marriage.)

Mrs. Curairo's mother, Martha Olson, came to North Dakota and worked in the beet fields and came to Fargo at the same time as the Curairo family. Mrs. Curairo reported that her father and mother had been separated for many years.

The Curairos left Oklahoma in July 1935 in a 1928 Dodge car. At the time they applied at this agency they reported they had burned out the bearing in their car so they had no way of getting back to Oklahoma. They had earned $98 working in the beet fields, but most of this money had been used for living expenses and for a doctor for Mrs. Curairo, who had been ill.

The residence of this family was verified as being in Seminole, Okla., and on March 11, 1936, we received an authorization to return them at our expense, but when the family was contacted regarding their return they refused to leave Fargo as they had secured work in the beet fields and expected to leave Fargo in April.

On February 10, 1937, Mrs. Curairo applied to this agency for hospitalization as she expected to be confined. They had worked all summer in the beet fields and had returned to Fargo in November of 1936. When the worker discussed the advisability of the family returning to Oklahoma, Mrs. Curairo explained that they did not wish to do this as the possibility for employment was no better in Oklahoma in the winter than in Fargo and her health would not permit her to go at this time. However, the social service department in Wewoka was contacted by telegram regarding the authorization which they had given in March of 1936 to return the family at our expense, but their reply indicated that the Curairo family had lost both county and State residence in Oklahoma and they refused to give authorization for their return.

This family has continued to work in the beet fields during the summer and in the late fall they moved to Fargo. Because Mr. Curairo has been unable to secure any employment it has been necessary to assist this family with groceries, rent, and clothing.

Mr. Curairo was certified to Work Projects Administration on February 19, 1938. He worked during the winter months and was canceled from Work Projects Administration on March 5, 1939, because he had not secured his citizenship papers. The worker spent a great deal of time with Mr. Curairo in an effort to have him obtain his citizenship papers. He made application for them at one time, but when some blanks were sent to him for further information regarding his marriage and the birthplace of his wife, he failed to obtain this information and insisted that the worker in the courthouse did not want to permit him to become a citizen. The clerk of court as well as the worker in the welfare office attempted to verify Mrs. Curairo's birth date and their marriage, but were unable to do so. We felt that if Mr. Curairo could obtain his citizenship papers he could work on Work Projects Administration during the winter months when the money which he had earned in the beet fields was gone. Mr. Curairo usually earns from $100 to $150 from April to October or November. Every year since 1937 Mr. Curairo has used part of his money to purchase a car, insisting that if he is going to work in the beet fields he needs a car to transport his family and belongings. Last year he purchased a Ford pick-up, 1930 model. Through the Creditor's Protective Association we learned that he would not have to make a payment until August 1940, when he would be expected to pay $105. After his work in the beet fields was completed he would be expected to make a second payment.

This family is very undesirable. Mrs. Curairo usually has several Mexican persons living in her home. She is not very well, being subject to epileptic seizures. When she comes to the welfare office she is very loud and dictatorial. Mr. Curairo dislikes coming to the agency and insists that his wife should come because she understands everything so much better than he. He is a very meek, submissive sort of person, and we believe that Mrs. Curairo feels that she can secure more adequate relief than her husband. However, after several years of work with this family we believe that they are becoming more cooperative with the agency.

When the family pays $12 a month rent, their budget usually amounts to about $60 a month.

[Fictitious names are used throughout. Original report on file at Public Welfare Board of North Dakota]

Immediate family: Surname, Abasolo. Address, First Avenue South.

First names	Date of birth	Place of birth
Raymond	Aug. 20, 1894	Mexico.
Ursula	Jan. 2, 1895	Do.
Children:		
Jack	June 22, 1918	Texas.
Fanny	Dec. 16, 1919	Iowa.
Jesse	May 22, 1922	Missouri.
Natalia	Mar. 13, 1929	Iowa.
Richard	June 6, 1936	North Dakota.
Juan	July 23, 1938	Minnesota.

Others in household: Rose Hernandez, sister of Mrs. Abasolo; Dickie, son of Fanny Abasolo; Jack, son of Rose Hernandez; Martha Floris, daughter of Rose Hernandez; Louise Pizzaro, friend of Mr. and Mrs. Abasolo; Robert, son of Louise Pizzarro.

Employers: Midland Creamery, Fargo, Rose Hernandez and Louise Pizzarro; Fargo Forum, Fargo, Jack Abasolo.

HISTORY

The Abasolo family were first known to this agency in November 1935, when Miss Ann McCarthy, supervisor of city nurses, reported that Rose Hernandez and her children, born out of wedlock, were in need of aid.

When one of the workers called at the home she found 14 persons living in a little house on lower First Avenue South. Mr. Richard Abasolo, who was the head of the household, reported that they had been in Fargo since November 1. They had been working in the beet fields near Amenia since the 1st of April. In addition to his own family and that of his sister-in-law, Rose Hernandez, Louise Pizzarro, a widow, and her son, Robert, were also occupying the small house. Rose Hernandez stated that she had made her home with the Abasolos practically all her life. She had never been married although she had tried to persuade the fathers of her children to marry her, but they had disappeared. She wore a wedding ring, believing it looked more respectable. Miss Hernandez was the spokesman during the interview and whenever it is necessary for any member of the family to come to the agency she always accompanies this person as she speaks English very well and acts as an interpreter.

Mrs. Pizzarro has spent most of the time since the death of her husband, about 5 years ago, living with her friends. She informed us that women could not make a living by themselves as the beet contracts were given to men. Mr. Abasolo would get a contract and then she and Rose Hernandez would work for him.

These families have lived in various places from Mexico to Fargo, and since leaving Mexico in 1910 they have followed the beet industry. They came to Minnesota in 1925 and located at Ada. Later the families moved to Georgetown, Minn., and the older children attended school there. In the winter of 1935 they decided to come to Fargo because Mrs. Pizzarro believed they could obtain work in one of the creameries. The family was Catholic, but the Fargo Union Mission had been kind enough to give the children bread and milk so the children had been attending church there.

Mr. Abasolo stated that if these two women in his household could get assistance he would get along for the present time. He had had an unfortunate experience this year because the farmer at Amenia had been unable to pay them for their work except by giving them potatoes. Since coming to Fargo they had had practically nothing but potatoes all month. Mr. Abasolo owned a

Chevrolet truck but he insisted that he could not sell it because he would have no way of getting his family out to the beet fields in the spring.

When the worker talked with the family about returning to Georgetown, Minn., where they had resided for the past 4 years, they were rather reluctant in agreeing that they should go as the children of that town teased their children and made life very miserable for them, calling them dirty Negroes, etc. They finally agreed that they could contact the Clay County authorities and ask permission to live in Moorhead. However, the workers of Clay County welfare office refused to grant this request, saying that the house in which they had lived in Georgetown was still vacant and they could return there. This family was assisted with an emergency order and with occasional help given by the Fargo Union Mission and the small amount of money earned by the Abasolo boy, who sold the Fargo Forum on the streets. They managed without other assistance and in the spring they returned to their work in the beet fields.

In the spring of 1936 Miss Hernandez contacted this agency again and when she understood that an attempt would be made to have the family return to Minnesota, she stated that the family did not care to return to Georgetown because, as she had stated once before, they did not have the good will of any of the people living there. She stated that rather than return they would get along as perhaps the work in the beet fields would be better this summer and they might earn enough money to carry them through the winter.

This family did not contact the agency again until in January of 1938 and after contacting the Clay County welfare office it was agreed that any assistance these families might need would be given by the Cass County Welfare Board.

This family, like all other Mexican families, always have a number of hangers-on. They would explain that Mr. So-and-so was just staying for a night or two until he could secure a place to live or find a job. The house always seemed to be overflowing with Mexican people and frequently white men would be visiting or living in the home. The women in the household did not seem to hesitate living with first one man and then another. One of the women admitted that she did not intend to marry as it usually resulted in a divorce anyway. The men of the household seemed to indulge in intoxicating liquor rather freely.

In 1939, the oldest son of Mr. Abasolo was very seriously injured and was in the hospital for many months. Dickey, son of Fannie Abasolo, has had an examination under the Crippled Children's Program. Mr. Richard Abasolo insisted that his daughter, Fannie, had given her baby to him when he was born as she was only 14 years of age and everyone thought it was his child.

Each winter Mr. Abasolo makes arrangements to trade in his truck and last winter he purchased a Chevrolet costing $954. When he made application to this agency for assistance it was with great difficulty we made him understand he was not eligible because he had invested all his earnings and also the earnings of Miss Hernandez and Mrs. Pizzarro in this truck. He told us of the supplies which he had purchased, but insisted that when they were so many it took a lot of money to feed them.

The family has not been interested in returning to Texas to live, because they feel it is much easier to get their beet contracts if they are in this vicinity. The women of the household are willing to work, but it is very difficult to find anyone in Fargo who is willing to employ Mexican help.

Last winter it was necessary to assist Miss Hernandez and her children and Mrs. Pizzarro and her son with groceries and clothing. They made arrangements with Mr. Abasolo to have one room in the house where they could live and do their own cooking. The agency felt that perhaps the small grocery order which was allowed them was used by the entire family as they seemed to live principally on beans and tortillas.

The family does not seem to have any plans for the future. They are sending their children to school during the winter months and move out to the beet fields in the early spring. The entire family works in the beet fields, and when their work is over they return to the city in September or October. All winter long they look forward to the time when they acquire anything of value, except the truck; this they feel is definitely a necessity, as they would not be able to get to the farms without some mode of transportation.

[Fictitious names are used throughout. Original report on file at Public Welfare Board of North Dakota]

BENSON COUNTY WELFARE BOARD,
Minnewaukan, N. Dak., August 20, 1940.

MR. E. A. WILLSON,
Executive Director, Public Welfare Board, Bismarck, N. Dak.

DEAR MR. WILLSON: Permit me to give my personal reaction to a problem which in Benson[2] County is becoming very alarming. I refer to the large number of tenants being forced off farms by big tractor-operating owners who farm principally for the purpose of drawing Agricultural Adjustment Administration payments.

Recently authentic word came to me that John Blank, of Churches Ferry and Devils Lake, is asking 20 of his renters in Benson and Ramsey Counties to vacate the farms they have been renting, some for many years, as he intends to farm these places himself next year. Offhand, 5 of these families are known to me personally and have always been enterprising, upright families; they have always made a go of things and have never had assistance; they have farmed three or four quarters and have had a small amount of stock; they have given the buildings and the soil good care; now they must even vacate the buildings.

These people will now be forced on smaller and less profitable units, with the possible eventuality of Farm Security grants to help them eke out a living. Those who are unable to locate farms will probably be forced to sell out their stock and machinery and eventually will wind up in town on the Work Projects Administration.

Just today the local Farm Security office advises me that seven of their standard loan borrowers are either without farms or cannot find a large enough unit to operate on a profitable basis as a result of big operators taking over the farms.

The Benson County Agricultural Adjustment Administration committee recently made a recommendation to the State committee that large-scale operators not be allowed to seed any more wheat under contract next year and if the backing of the State committee was secured in this matter, it might possibly mean these people would be allowed to stay on the farm.

Jens Jensen, a farmer living about 8 miles south of York in this county, is farming at present 8,000 acres of land. When he began to approach the limit on the amount of land he is allowed to contract on Agricultural Adjustment Administration payments he deeded some of his land over to his son, who is starting to follow suit. There are several sets of farm buildings now standing idle in this vicinity as the result of this man's $8 an acre purchases of 16 quarters made during the last year and like purchases made several years previous.

These are perhaps the most outstanding examples we have of large-scale farming operations putting the family-size farm unit out of business. Offhand I can think of a dozen more who are doing the same thing on a smaller scale.

I am not blaming these big fellows personally; they are getting by with just what Agricultural Adjustment Administration regulations permit. I realize that the tractor is responsible for much of the difficulty. However, I believe that these soil-conservation programs were set up primarily to protect the family-sized farm unit rather than the big operator, but it would appear that the original purpose is being somewhat smothered. This problem will go on gaining momentum even more rapidly than it has in the past 2 or 3 years if those of us who pick up the aftermath sit idly by.

We have talked about this thing several times at our coordination meeting and I feel these very discussions have had an indirect effect on the recommendations which have been made to the State committee. I hope other counties are thinking and acting in the same line. It might be that recommendations should be made to a progressively decreasing allotment payment with each successive quarter contracted. This might discourage the big fellows.

A more permanent solution than making recommendations to the State Agricultural Adjustment Administration committee might be the introduction of a graduated land-tax scale with a special rate for pasture land (but no homestead exemption). This is an old story as far as the legislators are concerned and it may not even be constitutional, but personally it seems to me a thought in the right direction. If this thinking is along the right groove there is another question as to who shall do the promoting, it probably is not within the realm of the welfare set-up, but at least we should be alert enough to the problem to make suggestions.

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[2] See reference in testimony of E. A. Wilson, p. 1439.

I just want you to know what those of us out in those rural counties are worrying about. I'm sure if 30 or more families are to be put off farms in Benson County that this thing is multiplied many times over throughout the State.

Sincerely yours, .

CLARA SWEETLAND,
Executive Secretary

[Fictitious names are used throughout. Original report on file in Public Welfare Board of North Dakota]

STARK COUNTY WELFARE BOARD,
Dickinson, August 28, 1940.

Mr. E. A. WILLSON,
Executive Director, Public Welfare Board,
Bismarck, N. Dak.

DEAR MR. WILLSON: I am submitting the information I am able to find on families now stranded at Belfield or other parts of Stark County as a result of the Government land purchase in the Badlands area.

Sixty-eight families were formerly residing in site No. 2, Billings County. Thirty-seven of these families have relocated by their own efforts, 1 was relocated by the Farm Security Administration on their resident project in the Red River Valley, 9 have been relocated by loans not on the resident project, and 14 were relocated by the Farm Security Administration through other means. There are 7 left to be relocated, 2 of whom are attempting to do so on their own efforts, 3 are attempting to receive Farm Security Administration aid, and 2 are to be relocated on other methods not yet determined.

On site No. 23 in Billings County, 40 were initially on the land. Of this number 18 have been relocated to date; 12 have been relocated on their own efforts, 2 have been relocated on the resettlement project, 2 were relocated by the Farm Security Administration through other means, and 2 are still being relocated through guidance of the Farm Security Administration. Twenty-two are still left to be relocated, 10 of which are attempting to relocate by their own efforts, 6 are to receive loans or grants not on resettlement projects, and 1 is to receive aid through the Farm Security Administration. Five have not yet been determined.

In Slope and Golden Valley Counties, 78 families were initially on the land. Thirty-four have relocated by their own efforts without any aid, and 2 are relocating in other ways. Forty-two are yet to be relocated, 5 of which are making attempts through their own efforts, 19 through rehabilitation loans, 2 through other forms of aid, and 16 are yet to be determined.

In the McKenzie County area, 184 were initially residing on the land. Two have been relocated by the Farm Security Administration on their resident project, 6 are to be relocated by loans and grants, but not on the resettlement project, 16 are to be relocated in other ways by the Farm Security Administration, and 142 have relocated through their own efforts. Eighteen are left to be relocated.

As near as I am able to determine, there are approximately 35 or 40 of these families which have moved into Stark County from the Billings, Slope, and Golden Valley County areas. However, I have been able to find the names of only about 18 of these. The following families moved here from Billings County:

No. 1. Belfield; operating a cream station at this time.

No. 2. Belfield; thus far he has been a problem case and no definite arrangement for his future has been determined.

No. 3. Belfield; unable to find any solution to his problem up to the present time.

No. 4. Belfield; farming; Stark County.

No. 5. Belfield; working on Work Projects Administration.

No. 6. Dickinson; working on Work Projects Administration.

No. 7. Belfield; farming.

No. 8. Belfield; on a farm.

No. 9. Belfield; working on Work Projects Administration.

No. 10. Taylor; farming.

No. 11. Belfield; working on Work Projects Administration.

No. 12. Belfield; working on Work Projects Administration.

No. 13. Belfield; farm laborer at present time.

No. 14. South Heart; farming; Farm Security Administration assistance.

The following families have moved into Stark County from Slope and Golden Valley Counties:

No. 15. Belfield; farming.

No. 16. Dickinson; farming.

Mr. Blank, in charge of the Land Use Office in Dickinson, states that about half of these families would have been unable to hold their farms due to the drought and adverse conditions the past few years. There still are some families living in the Badlands area which will move from their farms in a short time. How many families Stark will get is questionable. They appear to have a good attitude toward the Government land purchase in the Badlands area. However, most of them did not realize much cash as they were heavily in debt. It appears that some of these people who are not now on relief will have to apply as they have no means of income and the wages for farm labor as you know are not high enough to support a family.

Sincerely yours,

Stark County Welfare Board,
Raymond W. Riese,
Executive Secretary.

[Fictitious names are used throughout. Original report at Public Welfare Board, N. Dak.]

Walsh County Welfare Board,
Grafton, August 28, 1940.

Mr. E. A. Willson,
Executive Secretary, Public Welfare Board,
Bismarck, N. Dak.

Dear Mr. Willson: In answer to your letter and telegram regarding the information for the Committee on Interstate Migration of Destitute Citizens, I would like to give you some factual data regarding migratory people who have become residents of Walsh County, first:

In 1930, Quadalupe Costello, born in Micsjcan, Mexico, 32 years of age, came to Hoople in 1930 where he worked in the beet field and some farmer allowed him to stay in their farm buildings over the winter. At that time they had one child, but as his family grew and inasmuch as he had established his residence by living here 1 year, it was necessary for the county to support him in some form as his savings were diminished. In January of 1940 he had sickness in the family and during the summer he earned $350 working at beets. He stayed on some buildings on a farm where had had been working during the summer. Despite our efforts to get him work in a potato house the farmers did not hire him for potato work and when he did work it was taken for rent. This last year it was necessary to give him assistance because his wife and little girl were ill. If we have an extremely severe winter the Mexicans suffer with colds and ill health. A county welfare board grant was given to Mr. Costello during the past winter in the amount of $40.

In 1926, Mariano Rodriquez brought his family, consisting of a wife and four children, to Walsh County to work in the beets. The family had lived in Dallas, Texas, for several years prior to that time. Mrs. Rodriquez was married to Cornelius Mareno in 1911, and after his death married Mariano Rodriquez. She had four children from her first marriage and two from the latter. The family worked around Hoople from 1926 to 1928 and in 1929 began working beets in the neighborhood of Auburn for Hans Olson. In the year 1934 Mr. Rodriquez died of pneumonia. After Mr. Rodriquez's death Martin took over the household affairs.

After Mr. Rodriquez died it was necessary that assistance be given this family during the winter, inasmuch as their grocery bill exceeded their income. In the fall of 1934 they paid $200 on a car, which is quite characteristic. The three oldest boys were in jail as a result of some complications with girls in 1934 and during that winter they stayed on a farm in farm buildings. In the fall of 1935 they moved into Grafton in two upstairs rooms in a condemned hotel. They had one bed and a stove in each room. During the winter it was necessary that assistance be given to this family. Federal Emergency Relief Administration assistance was given at this time. Since then, however, Farm Security Administration had been given to them and some other form of assistance every year. Martin is married and had Work Projects Administration assistance during the past winter.

There is considerable doubt about Mrs. Rodriquez being a citizen, inasmuch as she was born in Mexico but her children were born in the United States. According to information received in 1935, the earnings for this family were $908.19, groceries amounted to $218.13 and cash paid out to $690.06. In August of that year they paid $182, according to their employer, on an automobile and in the fall of that year traded it in and were allowed $160 on it. They paid $125 on the new car then. Martin is now to be married tomorrow to a Gomez girl, which will add one more family resident in Walsh County.

Thomas Navarro is known to this office in a relief capacity and is also known in the State attorney's office. Considerable correspondence was had about this family during the year 1936 with Mr. Williams and Walsh County became liable for the family. They first came to East Grand Forks, Minn., where they lived from April to October 1933. They then moved to Grafton and back to Grand Forks. Finally, in 1936 they worked in the beets the majority of the time. It was necessary to give them assistance in 1936 from the Resettlement Administration. This family stayed here a sufficient time to obtain their residence and one winter moved to Minneapolis and were referred back here by the Minnesota Relief Agency. On June 12, 1938, Mr. Navarro was admitted to the sanitorium at San Haven for tuberculosis and has, of course, returned home since that time. He has been of considerable annoyance to all concerned. He drinks considerably and during these times is rather uncontrollable. He seems to spend his money very unwisely and the sugar-beet factory advised them to return to Texas several times. They started to go but got no farther than St. Paul. At the present time, the Navarro family is working beets, and undoubtedly will be here for the winter. During 1937 he received grants and received other forms of assistance as well.

The beet workers move here in the spring of the year. Some of them obtain promises of work in the fall of the year before they leave from a private grower or else a grower who has contact with the American Sugar Beet Co. When they return to Texas in the fall of the year they keep contacts around here and in the spring the grower generally notifies the most reliable of the Mexicans, states he is ready for them to come and that he will need a certain amount of workers. This means that he will probably bring with him one or two more families.

The Sugar Beet Co. states they do not pay anything for their transportation and make no arrangements to get them here. From my own contacts with the Mexicans and especially one transient, there is a certain system which they use whereby they have their own employment service and men are sent up here in the fall to top beets by friends down in Missouri, Kansas, and wherever they happen to be. One cannot make any definite statements regarding the beet workers and their type, inasmuch as the oldest heads of the family are very stanch and reliable. However, some of the younger men have become arrogant and we do know that there has been an introduction of marijuana in a small way in Walsh County and the sheriff has found an occasional patch growing out in the neighborhood where the beet workers' fields are. We do not know whether it was brought in and planted by the occupants or whether it came in with some of their articles which they brought in. At any rate, we do have a couple of girls who are going out with the Mexicans, and an occasional girl is an unmarried mother to a child whose father is a Mexican. This, of course, they say is as much our fault as it is the Mexicans.

As far as our farm families who are stranded in towns and cities as a result of foreclosure, land purchase, or drought, we have a large number of them. Some of them, however, because of the housing facilities in the villages, have been forced to take up living quarters in cook cars or in isolated farm buildings.

The case of Jens O. Nelson, 33 years old, one child, farming experience all his life, is an inactive standard loan borrower, who first obtained a loan from the Rural Reconstruction Administration. In 1936 he started farming in Cavalier County after which he rented land from the Bank of North Dakota. Last fall this land was sold by the Bank of North Dakota and he was forced to move into vacant farm buildings, as he was unable to find other land. It was impossible to find a farm. He is a very fine workman, has a nice herd of livestock, and sufficient machinery to farm 240 acres. At the present time he is endeavoring to obtain a small tract of land. However, it does not seem likely that this will go through and he stated that it will be necessary for him to sell out his herd and move into town where he can secure common labor or to find farm work.

Another case is that of Ole Anderson, 53 years of age, lives west of Park River, married and has five children, one who is under the crippled children's program. He is another inactive Farm Security Administration borrower and obtained his first loan in 1937, to purchase stock. At that time he was renting 240 acres from the First State Bank of Park River and last fall was forced to discontinue farming because the land was sold. He is a very good farmer and had a good herd of livestock and plenty of horsepower with which to farm his land. He looked for a farm all last winter and was unable to find one, and sold out his horses and machinery. Since that time he is doing farm labor and his family is living in vacant farm buildings. They get along with the barest necessities of life. This winter he will undoubtedly make application for Work Projects Administration assistance.

One of the outstanding reasons why it is hard for a dispossessed farmer to rent land in this county is the fact that in case they have no tractor the landlord does not want to rent them any land, since tractor farmers are given preference.

Mr. William Dietrich is a farmer, lived in the southwestern part of Walsh County. He is married, 49 years of age, and has a wife and three children. He was farming up till last fall when, after several years of poor crops, it was necessary for him to quit as there was a barnyard loan against most of his stock and some private loans against his horses.

Mr. Dietrich at the present time has a couple of horses which are being cared for by his brother-in-law near Oslo. He does not, however, have a great deal of machinery which is of much value. The drought seems to be his biggest reason for leaving the farm, and also the fact that he was unable to obtain better land than that he was on. He received assistance in 1936 and is a barnyard loan borrower.

John Danski is married, 38 years old and has five children. He formerly farmed near Minto for 8 years, but was forced to leave in 1929 because the barnyard loan has sold his livestock and machinery. The barnyard loan was obtained as a result of drought and a need for feed. At the time the sale was had he had been farming on a rented piece of land which was also being sold. In view of the fact, according to Mr. Danski's statement, the barnyard loan disposed of his chattels because he did not have a farm for the spring as yet. Mr. Danski is now living near Minto and has been doing farm labor since that time inasmuch as he hasn't any chattel with which to work a farm.

George Green, married, 3 children, moved to town in the fall of 1937 after having farmed since 1934. His moving into town was a result of drought and he was unable to make sufficient income from his farm to take care of his farm mortgage; on the 1938 crop there was a $2,000 mortgage.

Jim Jensen, married, 23 years of age, 5 children, has 1 artificial eye and is crippled. He has 1 artificial limb. He quit farming in 1938. They had been farming land which they were on and which was disposed of. They were unable to obtain any other land to work. He had at one time 4 horses, 8 head of cattle, 30 chickens, and 2 pigs.

Joe Brown at one time was a farmer and was in fairly good condition financially. However, he was renting land up till 1936 when the property was sold and they were forced to leave the farm. They were unfortunate not to obtain a piece of land that fall and last spring to rent and since that time are making a living as best they can from farm labor. They have received Farm Security Administration grants and county welfare board assistance during the last 2 years.

John White, 49 years old, married and has four children. He formerly farmed in Walsh County up until about 1937 at which time he was forced to leave the farm on which he was operating and he disposed of most of his chattels. Since that time he had been making a living at common labor and received Farm Security Administration grants during the winter months and made application for Work Projects Administration aid last year. He does not have any personal property at the present time.

I have endeavored in these past paragraphs to give you names and short outlines of the circumstances which brought about these people being forced to do common labor or make an application for Work Projects Administration. I realize that in some of these cases there is not a great deal of information available, but if I had not been away when your letter came I would have been able to send you a report in more detail, giving you some very definite facts about other cases which I have heard of and am too hazy on facts to relate to you. I might add, however, that we have had a great deal of trouble during the past 2 falls with the Federal land bank together with other landowners who are altogether too hasty to dispossess a farmer and to rent the land to some big landowner.

In one instance last fall they were going to evacuate a man from property and rent it to a man who already had a great deal of land and who intended to rent it to an out-of-the-county resident and our own resident would be forced to go on Work Projects Administration because of foreclosure and the fact that the Federal land bank did not see fit to rent it to them the following year.

This, however, was stopped with the influence of one of the commissioners and a State representative. This has happened in many instances and immediately upon the notice that they would be evacuated the barnyard loan calls on the farmer. Inasmuch as he does not have any farm for the coming year, it will be necessary that the Regional Agricultural Credit Corporation liquidate their mortgage. This fact is borne out by the number of sales which are held in Walsh County and the neighboring counties in the months of September and October of each year.

I am sorry that I could not have made this much more in detail.

Very truly yours,

J. F. Ulmer, *Executive Secretary.*

II. PRACTICAL METHODS OF STRENGTHENING FARM FAMILY TENURE ON FARM UNITS

I believe the most practical method would be to limit Agricultural Adjustment Administration benefits to a family-sized economic unit, the size of such units should vary according to the rainfall, the productivity of the soil, and the percentage of tillable land.

III. SOURCES OF MIGRATORY FARM FAMILIES AND THEIR ULTIMATE DESTINATION

Most migratory farm families from North Dakota have heretofore come from the western part of the State, where the land was too thickly settled due to previous land-settlement policies of the Federal Government. Due to the influences of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration program, farm families are now migrating from farms in all parts of the State. Most of the farm migrants at present are moving to the towns and cities in North Dakota, where they will ultimately be on relief, although some of them who have sufficient resources are moving out of the State, for the most part to western Montana, Idaho, Washington, and Oregon.

IV. PROVISIONS BY STATE AND LOCAL AGENCIES FOR RELIEF, EDUCATION, HOUSING, HEALTH, AND RESETTLEMENT OF NONRESIDENT FAMILIES IN EACH STATE AND METHODS OF INTEGRATING FEDERAL RELIEF WITH STATE AND LOCAL AID

Under the relief and welfare laws of North Dakota, all relief and welfare activities are administered by nonsalaried county welfare boards which are appointed by the boards of county commissioners, subject to the approval of the State welfare board. Such relief and welfare activities as are financed in whole or in part by State or Federal funds are administered by the county welfare boards under the supervision of the State board. The North Dakota State public welfare board is a nonsalaried policy-making board.

There is a very close integration of Federal relief activities, such as Work Projects Administration and Farm Security Administration, with State and local relief and welfare administrations. All persons in need of assistance of any kind make application to the county welfare boards. If, upon investigation, they are found to be in need, the cases are given assistance through referral to a Federal agency, through the joint social-security programs, or through county general relief. The integration of Federal, State, and local relief is furthered by frequent coordination meetings on both the State and local level of all relief and welfare agencies and, in addition, agencies concerned with rehabilitation and the improvement of agricultural conditions, such as the Soil Conservation Service, the Agricultural Adjustment Administration, etc.

Assistance is given by the county welfare boards to needy nonresident or stranded families insofar as limited relief funds will permit. The usual practice of county welfare boards is to provide temporary aid for these families pending determination of their legal residence and the receipt of permission from the State or county of legal residence for the return of the family. Transportation to the locus of legal residence is generally provided for those stranded persons.

Children of nonresident families are permitted to attend local schools.

Housing of nonresidents is a serious problem because of the housing shortage in most cities and villages.

Medical care is provided for nonresidents in need of such care by the local county welfare board.

No attempt is made to resettle nonresident families in North Dakota because of the very large number of resident families in need of resettlement and for whom suitable land is not available.

In years of good crops there is a considerable movement of migratory labor into the State, especially during the harvest season. This migration, made up largely of single men, does not present a problem except in cases of accident or sickness, in which cases aid is provided by the county welfare board of the county in which the sickness or accident occurred. At times these cases become a very serious burden in a county where funds available for relief are extremely limited.

The problem of providing assistance for needy migratory laborers is most serious in those areas of the State where sugar beets are produced and where there is an annual influx of sugar-beet workers, principally Mexican families. A number of these families have become stranded in North Dakota through the death of the head of the household and the inability to return them to any other State, due to loss of residence through continuous migration. These families are usually large and have become a serious relief burden in the counties in which they have located. Most of the beet-worker families, however, come to North Dakota in the spring and return to some southern State in the fall.

V. Extent to Which the Destitute Condition of American Families Is a Result of Circumstances Completely Beyond Their Control

Crop failure, sickness, or other catastrophe and lack of employment opportunities—conditions entirely beyond the control of individuals—are responsible for the destitute condition of practically all North Dakota families who are now or have been during the past 10 years in need of public assistance. North Dakota citizens are, in general, thrifty and hardworking and, if allowed a fair opportunity, would be self-supporting.

VI. Opportunities for Resettling Migratory and Needy Farm Families on Irrigated Projects or Other Potential Farming Land

The only irrigation projects of any consequence under way to date in North Dakota are the Lewis and Clark project of 5,000 acres, which has just been completed, and the Buford-Trenton project of 14,000 acres, which is just being started. It is contemplated that approximately 60 families will be located on 80-acre tracts on the Lewis and Clark project. Of these 10 were original residents of the area. It is contemplated that this project will provide subsistence homesteads for farm families now stranded in cities and towns who have lost their farms in recent years. Present plans call for locating approximately 140 families on the 14,000 acres of the Buford-Trenton project. It will, however, be 2 or 3 years before this project is ready for settlement.

VII. Tax Situation in North Dakota

The almost total crop failure in North Dakota in the years 1933–36, inclusive, partial or complete failure in large areas in 1937, 1938, and 1939, and the resulting shortage of feed, which made necessary a 50-percent reduction in the number of cattle in the State, and corresponding reductions in sheep and hogs resulted in greatly reduced tax collections. On November 30, 1937, only 56.8 percent of the 1936 tax levy had been collected. On November 30, 1938, only 58.9 percent of the 1937 tax levy had been collected.

A special report to Governor Moses, prepared by the division of accounting, finance, and reports of the public welfare board (see exhibit B) contains considerable information on agricultural income, the relief situation, and State and county finances. This report shows that the debt of county governments increased from $3,777,000 to $9,411,502 between 1932 and 1938. Many of the counties, particularly in the areas hardest hit by drought, because of very poor tax collections, were forced to sell certificates of indebtedness against uncollected taxes to meet general governmental expenses and to issue emergency poor relief warrants to meet relief and welfare expenditures. Some of the counties are in reality bankrupt. They cannot sell certificates of indebtedness and their warrants are either heavily discounted or cannot be sold. The following summarization reflects the ability or inability of county governments to provide for relief needs:

1. In the fiscal year ending June 30, 1938. county expenditures for regular governmental functions, exclusive of poor relief, exceeded available county revenues in 20 counties.
2. In these 20 counties relief expenditures were financed by additional borrowing or by the issuance of registered warrants or emergency poor fund warrants.
3. Nine counties were able to meet only a part of the statutory requirements as to Old Age Assistance and Aid to Dependent Children out of current revenues and were able to provide funds for general relief only by additional borrowing.
4. Seventeen counties were able to meet, from current revenues, their statutory share of the cost of Old Age Assistance, and Aid to Dependent Children, and a part of the cost of county poor relief.
5. Only 7 counties showed sufficient fiscal ability to finance the entire cost of the general relief program together with their statutory share of Old Age Assistance and Aid to Dependent Children.

Because of the difficult financial condition of most of the counties, the State has attempted, since the discontinuance of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration in December of 1935, to assist the counties in meeting their necessary relief expenditures. The Legislature of 1935, which established the public welfare board, appropriated $1,225,000 for general relief and public welfare, most of which was granted to the counties to help meet general relief expenditures.

The legislative session of 1937 appropriated $3,500,000 for general relief and $2,000,000 for the Social Security programs. The general relief appropriation was distributed among the counties on an equalization basis taking into consideration the relief load and the financial condition of the various counties. The appropriation for the Social Security programs was used to meet the State's statutory share of Old Age Assistance, Aid to Dependent Children, and Aid to the Blind and also to carry the counties' share of these programs in those counties which were on a warrant basis and could not meet their share of the cost in cash. State revenues during this biennieum were inadequate to meet the appropriations, and it was necessary for the State to borrow $1,770,000 on certificates of indebtedness against uncollected taxes, which was within $163,000 of the amount permitted by statute, that is 75 percent of the amount of taxes outstanding for the current year and the 5 next preceding years.

The 1939 session of the Legislature appropriated $3,427,000 for general relief and $2,454,000 for the State's share of the Social Security programs including Old Age Assistance, Aid to Dependent Children, and Aid to the Blind, and Child Welfare Services, and Services to Crippled Children. It is estimated that the total appropriations made by the 1939 Legislature will exceed by $3,000,000 to $4,000,000 the total State revenues from all sources during the current biennium. In spite of the strictest economy on the part of all State departments and institutions and the continuation of the issuance of certificates of indebtedness against uncollected taxes on the part of the State, it has been impossible to make available to the public welfare board the moneys appropriated for general relief. Since the beginning of the biennium grants to the counties from the general relief appropriation have been about 15 percent less than the monthly prorated proportion of the total appropriation and the State Welfare Board is behind several months in making grants to the counties. In addition, it has been necessary for the State board to borrow against its appropriation to meet the State's share of Social Security programs under authorization given the State Welfare Board by the last Legislative Assembly to borrow up to $200,000.

The drought and the resultant poor tax collections in recent years throughout most of North Dakota have created a very serious problem for the rural schools. School expenditures for the State were reduced from over $16,000,000 in 1930 to less than $11,000,000 in 1938, through drastic reduction in teachers' salaries and other economies. The 1939 Legislature appropriated $4,510,000 for aid to the schools on the basis of need and on the pupil-unit basis.

The tax and financial situation in the State and in the counties and local school districts has been aggravated by a reduction in taxable value of real property due in part to decreased valuation resulting from crop failure and low income, and, in part, to the enormous increase in nontaxable land resulting from the acquisition of land by counties through tax deed and in some areas through the acquisition of the land by the Federal Government's land purchase program. A recent study on "Publicly Owned Land and Related Factors in North Dakota" sponsored by the State advisory board and the State tax commissioner and made by the Work Projects Administration shows that 16 percent of the land area of the State is publicly owned and that an additional 19 percent is now in the process of foreclosure because of tax delinquency. If and when these tax foreclosures are completed, there will be 35 percent of the total area of the State publicly owned. Such a large proportion of the land area of the State removed from the tax rolls is intensifying the tax problem of the local governments as well as the State government and making it increasingly difficult to secure sufficient tax revenue to meet relief, school, and general governmental expenditures.

The following tables show the State taxes levied, collected, and outstanding on July 1, 1940, and the basis for the 1940 State general fund levy:

Statement of taxes levied, collected, and unpaid, State of North Dakota, July 1, 1940

The following is a statement of the amount of State taxes levied, collected, and outstanding and unpaid on property, due the State of North Dakota for the years 1933 to 1939, inclusive:

Year	Levy	Collected	Percentage of levy collected	Balance unpaid
1933	$3, 533, 594. 56	$3, 497, 036. 48	98. 96	$36, 558. 08
1934	2, 178, 872. 92	1, 799, 323. 52	82. 58	379, 549. 40
1935	2, 300, 573. 67	1, 742, 697. 59	75. 75	557, 876. 10
1936	2, 111, 992. 63	1, 633, 106. 74	77. 32	478, 885. 89
1937	2, 880, 559. 77	2, 100, 265. 23	72. 91	780, 294. 54
1938	2, 738, 536. 16	1, 991, 262. 45	72. 71	747, 273. 71
1939	3, 042, 151. 00	1, 620, 409. 39	53. 27	1, 421, 741. 61
Total	18, 786, 280. 71	14, 384, 101. 38	76. 57	4, 402, 179. 33

Unpaid taxes apportioned according to purpose of levy

General fund, 1939 tax	$807, 566. 10
Certificate of indebtedness redemption, 1933–38	2, 003, 374. 88
Mill and elevator bonds	478, 843. 85
Milling bonds	117, 280. 21
Real-estate-bond interest	771, 891. 00
Real-estate-bond principal	60, 898. 03
Capitol building	139, 370. 43
Old-age pension	22, 954. 83
Total	4. 402, 179. 33

BISMARCK, N. DAK., *July 1, 1940.*

BERTA E. BAKER, *State Auditor.*
By F. E. TUNNELL, *Deputy.*

Basis for 1940 State general-fund levy, July 1, 1940

Liabilities:		
Unpaid general-fund appropriations, 1939–41		$10,588,890.72
Unpaid prior appropriations		279,794.94
Due institutions from general fund		328,202.33
Total liabilities		11,196,887.99
Resources:		
Uncollected taxes—less 10 percent		1,847,029.68
Less certificates of indebtedness	$1,343,000.00	
Plus interest	60,000.00	
Total	1,403,000.00	
Less redemption fund	239,809.48	
		1,163,190.52
		683,839.16
General-fund balance, July 1, 1940		773,229.76
Estimated miscellaneous collections		2,461,764.00
Estimated sales-tax collections		3,000,000.00
Total resources		6,918,832.92
Required to be raised by taxation		4,278,055.07
The total taxable valuation of all property subject to general property tax is $450,496,467, applied to which a levy of 3.80 mills will raise		1,711,886.00
Deficit		[1] 2,566,169.07

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[1] This estimated deficit is based on an estimated 100-percent collection of the 1940 tax levy within the fiscal year ending June 30, 1941.

EXHIBIT B TO STATEMENT OF E. A. WILLSON, EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR, PUBLIC WELFARE BOARD OF NORTH DAKOTA

Memorandum to Hon. John Moses, Governor of North Dakota, relating to the ability of North Dakota to finance current relief requirements, April 1, 1940. Prepared by L. A. Baker, supervisor, division of accounting, finance, and reports, public welfare board

Facts About North Dakota

An economic analysis of conditions in North Dakota must largely revolve about the unemployment and agricultural situation, aggregate income of the people of the State, the extent to which they are self-supporting, and the fiscal ability of State and local governments to meet the problem of caring for those whose resources are inadequate to provide food, clothing, and shelter.

I. Encouraging Factors

1. *Increase in agricultural income.*—Agricultural cash income, exclusive of benefit payments, increased $19,420,000 or 21.7 percent in 1939 over 1938 figures. Agricultural cash income, including benefit payments, increased $35,586,000 or 34.7 percent over the total of such income in the year 1938.

2. *Decrease in total volume of relief.*—In January 1939 an estimated 60,777 different households received some form of public relief, while in January 1940 the total had dropped to 32,773, a percentage decrease of 43.6 percent. The population represented by relief households dropped from an estimated total of 242,405 in January 1939 to 110,637 in January 1940, or a percentage decrease of 52 percent. Relief expenditures showed a similar decline, dropping from a total of $2,163,274 in January 1939 to $1,286,928 in January 1940, a percentage decrease of 36.5 percent.

3. *Large decrease in volume of farm relief.*—Farm relief showed a remarkable decrease in the same period. For instance, the number of families receiving Farm Security Administration subsistence grants dropped from 30,924 in January 1939 to 3,946 in January 1940, a percentage decrease of 87.2 percent. Relief expenditures for subsistence grant payments dropped 89.3 percent from a total of $668,051 in January 1939 to 71,796 in January 1940.

4. *Increase in volume of retail business.*—Retail sales, as reflected by State sales tax collections during the 9-month period ending March 31, 1940, were up 11.3 percent, compared with the 9-month period ending March 31, 1939.

II. Discouraging Factors

There are many discouraging factors in the situation facing North Dakota.

Decline in agricultural income compared with predepression years.—First in importance, as a discouraging factor, is the failure of North Dakota to make an agricultural recovery. The year 1939 was the best year from the standpoint of agricultural income which North Dakota has had since 1930. Bearing this fact in mind, the record shows that the cash income of North Dakota farmers, in 1939, from crop production was only 32 percent of the 1924–28 average; that income from livestock and livestock products was 82.2 percent of the 1924–28 average and that total cash income from agricultural production was only 45.8 percent of the 1924–28 average. Even with Government-benefit payments the total cash income of North Dakota farmers in 1939 was only 58.1 percent of the 1924–28 average. The unfavorable agricultural situation; the poor outlook for farm exports and particularly for wheat, which is North Dakota's major crop; the unbalance between agricultural prices and industrial prices; and the failure of agricultural prices to achieve any reasonable approach to parity with industrial prices are some of the unfavorable factors relative to the agricultural situation.

Cash income from agricultural and livestock production in North Dakota, 1924–39

[All figures in thousands of dollars]

Year	Cash income			Benefit payments	Total cash income plus benefit payments
	Crops	Livestock and livestock products	Total		
1924	$226, 758	$53, 142	$279, 900		$279, 900
1925	181, 723	68, 923	250, 646		250, 646
1926	108, 151	76, 858	185, 009		185, 009
1927	183, 253	62, 466	245, 719		245, 719
1928	163, 694	64, 116	227, 810		227, 810
1924–28 Average	172, 716	65, 101	237, 817		237, 817
1929	117, 364	72, 384	189, 748		189, 748
1930	71, 900	57, 284	129, 184		129, 184
1931	18, 089	42, 202	60, 291		60, 291
1932	37, 950	29, 513	67, 463		67, 463
1933	47, 004	33, 063	80, 067	$15, 692	95, 759
1934	13, 286	[1] 43, 991	57, 277	18, 150	[1] 75, 427
1935	45, 826	36, 153	81, 979	19, 126	101, 105
1936	30, 289	56, 280	86, 569	12, 379	98, 948
1937	50, 352	47, 086	97, 438	21, 210	118, 648
1938	43, 320	46, 075	89, 395	13, 179	102, 574
1939	55, 270	53, 545	108, 815	29, 345	138, 160

[1] Includes drought cattle and sheep purchases of $13,440,000.

INDEX OF AGRICULTURAL AND LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION, 1924-39

[1924-28 average=100 percent]

1924	131.3	81.6	117.7	117.7
1925	105.2	105.9	105.4	105.4
1926	62.6	118.1	77.8	77.8
1927	106.1	96.0	103.3	103.3
1928	94.8	98.5	95.8	95.8
1929	68.0	111.2	79.8	79.8
1930	41.6	88.0	54.3	54.3
1931	10.5	64.8	25.4	25.4
1932	22.0	45.3	28.4	28.4
1933	27.2	50.8	33.7	40.3
1934	7.7	67.6	24.1	31.7
1935	26.5	55.5	34.5	42.5
1936	17.5	86.5	36.4	41.6
1937	29.2	72.3	41.0	49.9
1938	25.1	70.8	37.6	43.1
1939	32.0	82.2	45.8	58.1

Source: Reports of Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

Low income level in North Dakota.—Probably the most authoritative data on the low level of income in North Dakota, per capita, compared with the national average, are contained in the United States Department of Commerce report entitled "State Income Payments—1929-37," issued in May 1939. The following table was made up from data contained in said report.

Estimate of National income and North Dakota income

Year	National income	North Dakota income	National income per capita	North Dakota income per capita	North Dakota income per capita as percent of National average
1929	$79,988,000,000	$315,000,000	$658	$465	70.67
1930	73,261,000,000	236,000,000	595	346	58.15
1931	62,263,000,000	165,000,000	502	240	47.81
1932	48,368,000,000	111,000,000	387	160	41.34
1933	45,782,000,000	133,000,000	364	191	52.47
1934	53,057,000,000	158,000,000	419	227	54.18
1935	57,368,000,000	178,000,000	450	254	56.44
1936	66,187,000,000	211,000,000	515	301	58.45
1937	70,645,000,000	223,000,000	547	316	57.77

The above table indicates that even in 1929, when North Dakota was comparatively prosperous, the income per capita was almost 30 percent below the national average; and that in the years since 1929 the per capita income in North Dakota has ranged from 59 to 41 percent below the national average income per capita.

Table II of the publication referred to above gives indexes of income payments by States for the years 1929 to 1937, inclusive. The figures indicate that in every year since 1929, for which income estimates are available, the percentage of income loss for North Dakota compared with the base year 1929 was greater than any other State, with the single exception of the year 1930, when North Dakota tied with Arkansas for this doubtful distinction. This strikingly bad situation which has existed since 1929 was the cumulative effect of the economic depression, the agricultural depression, loss of foreign markets, unfavorable climatic conditions, combined with crop destruction caused by grasshopper and rust infestations. Stated somewhat differently, North Dakota has been the least prosperous of all of the States compared with the predepression year 1929 in every year since 1929 for which income estimates are available.

In the year 1932 income payments for the United States as a whole has decreased only 39 percent as compared with 59 percent for North Dakota. The index figures of total income for the United States as a whole and for North Dakota, South Dakota, Minnesota, Nebraska, Kansas, and Montana, for the years 1930–37, compared with the base year 1929, according to the estimates of the United States Department of Commerce, were as follows:

Index of income payments, by States, 1929–37

Year	United States	North Dakota	South Dakota	Minnesota	Nebraska	Kansas	Montana
1929	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930	92	75	97	95	102	95	83
1931	78	52	79	83	84	76	70
1932	61	35	40	62	51	53	48
1933	57	42	48	60	56	53	51
1934	66	50	59	70	66	63	74
1935	72	57	64	78	67	69	81
1936	83	67	79	93	80	79	91
1937	88	71	74	97	78	83	94

Migration of rural population to towns.—A seemingly permanent relief population of employables is being established in the towns of North Dakota. According to best information available, approximately 70 percent of the people employed on Work Projects Administration are persons with a farm background who have been forced off the farm through failure to make a living on the farm. Their failure to make a living on the farm was due in large part to the following factors:

(1) General economic conditions.

(2) Extensive drought, grasshopper, and rust infestations which have afflicted wide areas of the State year after year.

(3) Rapid mechanization of farm production and farm processes.

(4) Forced foreclosure of farm mortgages.

(5) Displacement of many small farmers because of inability to meet the new conditions which have faced agriculture in recent years.

Loss of farms on the part of farm owners through forced foreclosure has been large cause of migration out of the open country to cities and villages. According to the facts regarding forced foreclosure in sample counties of this State furnished by the Federal Department of Agriculture, about 43,000 out of the 78,000 farms of 1930, or nearly 53 percent underwent forced foreclosure between 1921 and 1934. Forced foreclosure went into abeyance in 1934 due to a moratorium established by decree of the Governor and subsequent moratoriums established by the legislature, but out of that holocaust came thousands of tenant farmers, also a large percentage who lost morale and hopelessly drifted into town to become Work Projects Administration workers or direct relief recipients. Towns of North Dakota are still receiving recruits from this dislocation.

These people appear to be destined for permanent submergence.

The Federal Security Administration disclaims responsibility for these people. The rules and regulations of that organization, which limit relief grants to bona fide operating farmers, have made it necessary to care for these people either through direct relief or by Work Projects Administration employment.

The Work Projects Administration has cooperated to its full ability within the limitations of the Work Projects Administration program. The scope of the Work Projects Administration program is limited by congressional appropriation, also by rules and regulations that have restricted Work Projects Administration employment largely to the urban unemployment except during short-term period when drought-relief programs were in operation.

The jobless employables in cities and villages of North Dakota can find few openings in industry or trade. Unless this condition is changed, their submergence will be permanent. A large proportion of farm operators and laborers that have drifted to the towns and cities of North Dakota do not have the necessary skills for absorption into private industry even if employment were available in a private industry. Their future, if any there be, is on the farm. The rehabilitation of these classes is one of the vital problems confronting North Dakota as well as the Nation. Continuous good crops, which can hardly be expected in North Dakota, one-half or two-thirds of which is semiarid and agriculturally submarginal by nature or by reason of rainfall conditions, would not check the propulsive effects of increased mechanization and expansion of farms. There is nothing in sight to check the exit of surplus farm laborers from agricultural industry.

I have touched on the general future outlook for these rural migrants to the towns and cities of North Dakota, but the immediate and vital problem is the necessity of providing bare existence not only to this group but to the whole urban group of unemployed employables who are in need.

UNEMPLOYMENT

Data on the extent of unemployment in North Dakota is not very satisfactory. How many persons in North Dakota want jobs and cannot get them, is a question that cannot be definiteley answered. Comparative figures on the number of persons registered with the North Dakota Employment Service on the last day of the month for the years 1938, 1939, and 1940 to date give an incomplete picture of unemployment in North Dakota.

A comparative statement of the number of persons registered with the North Dakota Employment Service on the last day of the month in the years 1938, 1939, and 1940, to date: a statement of the number of persons certified as in need of relief and employed on Federal works projects for the same months; and a statement of the number of persons covered by North Dakota unemployment compensation for the same months, so far as available, is given below. (Up to June 30, 1939, railroad employees were covered by the North Dakota unemployment compensation. Since that date railroad employees are not included under such coverage, consequently, in order to make figures comparable for all months, railroad workers have been excluded from all figures in the table below.)

Comparison of number of persons registered with North Dakota Employment Service; number of persons certified as in need of relief, employed on Federal work projects; and number of people covered by North Dakota unemployment compensation, by months, 1938, 1939, and 1940

Month	Number of persons registered with North Dakota Employment Service last day of month			Number of persons certified as in need of relief employed on Federal Work projects of Works Project Administration and other Federal programs			Number covered by North Dakota unemployment compensation exclusive of railroad employees		
	1938	1939	1940	1938	1939	1940	1938	1939	1940
January	28,429	31,810	27,521	14,480	14,675	15,322	23,132	22,640	--------
February	28,279	32,972	29,604	15,458	14,715	15,948	22,137	22,013	--------
March	30,054	31,634	[1] 32,000	15,677	14,887	13,076	23,058	23,141	--------
April	31,105	33,448	--------	15,556	14,027	--------	25,019	24,124	--------
May	30,439	32,840	--------	15,586	13,706	--------	25,511	25,473	--------
June	30,659	31,825	--------	15,575	13,759	--------	26,583	26,345	--------
July	30,669	30,757	--------	15,137	9,725	--------	26,565	26,597	--------
August	26,043	28,670	--------	14,393	6,686	--------	26,374	26,795	--------
September	26,544	28,288	--------	15,605	10,149	--------	27,693	28,141	--------
October	28,225	27,163	--------	18,096	10,313	--------	26,679	27,226	--------
November	28,513	23,670	--------	17,227	11,565	--------	26,368	25,039	--------
December	28,483	23,576	--------	15,072	14,116	--------	25,799	25,508	--------

[1] Estimated by North Dakota Employment Service.

It should be very definitely understood that the number of persons registered with the North Dakota Employment Service, as given in the foregoing table, is an incomplete statement of the number of persons seeking employment in North Dakota. The figures indicate roughly that during 1939 the known number of persons seeking employment ranged from about 23,500 to 33,500.

During 9 months of the period, the number of persons seeking employment was in excess of the total number employed in covered employment. This figure, it is believed, is extremely significant. It is very difficult to draw any definite conclusion from the figures but apparently they indicate that only approximately half of the employable people in North Dakota, exclusive of persons making their living through farming or livestock production, are actually employed in productive private industry.

Comparing the increases in the number of persons covered by North Dakota unemployment compensation with the decreases in Federal works employment, it is apparent that the Work Projects Administration by reduction in persons on its pay roll, took almost full advantage of the increased private employment.

There was no significant change in 1939 in the number of persons registered with the North Dakota Employment Service except during the last few months of the year. The trend downward during the latter part of 1939 was abruptly reversed in January 1940. From a total of 23,576 in December 1939 there was an increase to 29,604 at the end of February 1940 and an estimated increase to 32,000 at the end of March 1940, or approximately the same total as in March of last year.

It is apparent, therefore, that the improvement in business and in the agricultural situation in North Dakota provided no significant increase in employment except during approximately 2 months—November and December—in the year 1939.

DECREASE IN AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT

Increasing mechanization of agriculture is resulting in less demand each year for agricultural labor on the farm. Hundreds of farmers who employed a group of men throughout the entire crop season several years ago now do all the work with family labor, or, at most, employ one man for a few weeks during haying, seeding, and harvesting seasons. Tractors, combine harvesters, and mechanical corn pickers have displaced thousands of farm laborers who formerly secured employment throughout the summer season. Sixteen mechanical corn pickers were purchased by the farmers in one county of North Dakota in the fall of 1939. These mechanical corn pickers handled practically the entire corn crop in that county last fall, displacing hundreds of laborers who, in the past, have handled the corn in that county.

STRANDED FARM FAMILIES

As a result of the protracted drought and destruction of crops by grasshoppers during recent years, thousands of former farm operators have lost their livestock and most, if not all, of their farm equipment. Due to their inability to secure credit from private or public agencies and the Farm Security Administration regulations which limit farm-security grants to operating farmers, large numbers of these former farmers have moved to town, and this movement is continuing and will continue unless some means of rehabilitating them on the land can be found. They have no occupation other than farming, and when they move to town their only hope is Work Projects Administration employment or direct relief.

THE YOUTH PROBLEM

One of the major tragedies with which we are confronted in North Dakota is the inability of the youth of the State to secure employment. The loss of opportunity to enter into productive employment has been a destructive factor on the youth of North Dakota.

Approximately 10,000 youth in North Dakota enter the employment or labor market each year. The normal migration of the youthful population to the larger urban centers in other States was disrupted by the depression. These youth have mostly remained within the State and have not been absorbed into private employment except to a very limited extent.

INCREASE IN WORK PROJECTS ADMINISTRATION EMPLOYMENT

As of March 27, 1940, the number of persons certified to Work Propjects Administration as in need of relief and awaiting assignments to work projects was 3,327. Distribution, by counties, of the number awaiting assignment, was as follows:

County	Number of persons awaiting assignment	County	Number of persons awaiting assignment
Adams	16	Mercer	69
Barnes	124	Morton	155
Benson	29	Mountrail	99
Billings	6	Nelson	39
Bottineau	71	Oliver	19
Bowman	31	Pembina	17
Burke	74	Pierce	17
Burleigh	137	Ramsey	55
Cass	171	Ranson	67
Cavalier	30	Renville	21
Dickey	64	Richland	82
Divide	59	Rolette	77
Dunn	27	Sargent	65
Eddy	36	Sheridan	37
Emmons	86	Sioux	11
Foster	39	Slope	7
Golden Valley	1	Stark	112
Grand Forks	147	Steele	35
Grant	35	Stutsman	119
Griggs	22	Towner	22
Hettinger	22	Traill	35
Kidder	34	Walsh	52
LaMoure	69	Ward	220
Logan	48	Wells	39
McHenry	52	Williams	161
McIntosh	76		
McKenzie	86	Total	3, 327
McLean	103		

The number of persons employed on Work Projects Administration projects on March 6, 1939, was 15,607, from March 6 to 27 the number decreased by 2,531 to a total of 13,076.

The number of persons employed on work projects or other Federal agencies on March 6, 1939, was 432. From March 6 to 27 there was an increase of 114 in the number of persons so employed to a total of 546 on March 27, 1940.

The net decrease in employment on Work Projects Administration projects and projects of other Federal agencies from March 6 to 27 was 2,417. The anticipated reductions in April in the number of persons employed on Federal work projects is 1,300. Unless there is a pick up in private employment in excess of what can be expected, it will be necessary to provide direct relief to most of these people and to their families.

TAX DELINQUENCY

Data relative to tax delinquency are not wholly satisfactory. There is no central listing of data necessary for complete analysis of the problem. The amount and percentage of total State taxes which were delinquent for the years 1934 to 1938 on December 31, 1939, was as follows:

Year	Amount levied	Amount collected	Amount delinquent	Percent delinquent
1933	$3, 533, 594. 56	$3, 309, 328. 37	$224, 266. 19	6. 35
1934	2, 178, 872. 92	1, 799, 323. 52	379, 549. 40	17. 42
1935	2, 300, 573. 67	1, 742, 697. 57	557, 876. 10	24. 25
1936	2, 111, 992. 63	1, 564, 065. 53	547, 927. 10	25. 94
1937	2, 880, 559. 77	1, 980, 296. 28	900, 263. 49	31. 25
1938	2, 738, 536. 16	1, 801, 020. 47	937, 515. 69	34. 23
6-year totals	15, 744, 129. 71	12, 196, 731. 74	3, 547, 397. 97	22. 53

The percent of local taxes for these years which was delinquent on December 31, 1939, would be approximately the same for the State as a whole. Applying these percentages to the aggregate amount of taxes levied for the years 1933–38 and using actual figures as to State taxes, it is indicated that for the year 1933 to 1938, inclusive, uncollected and delinquent taxes amount to the aggregate sum of $28,298,843. The distribution of this delinquency is as follows:

State taxes	$3, 547, 398
County taxes	7, 877, 391
City, village, and township taxes	4, 824, 296
School taxes	12, 049, 758
Total	28, 298, 843

The percentage of the 1938 State levy uncollected on December 31, 1939, was 34. The percentage of taxes delinquent in each county is as follows:

Percentage of 1938 State tax levy delinquent on Dec. 31, 1939

	Percent
Adams	45. 02
Barnes	30. 40
Benson	29. 07
Billings	38. 08
Bottineau	26. 86
Bowman	47. 85
Burke	30. 63
Burleigh	27. 04
Cass	18. 33
Cavalier	37. 48
Dickey	39. 15
Divide	67. 92
Dunn	53. 46
Eddy	32. 44
Emmons	57. 01
Foster	28. 22
Golden Valley	20. 50
Grand Forks	16. 39
Grant	64. 50
Griggs	29. 51
Hettinger	51. 12
Kidder	50. 97
LaMoure	35. 62
Logan	55. 10
McHenry	31. 16
McIntosh	62. 46
McKenzie	51. 98
McLean	55. 35
Mercer	47. 85
Morton	59. 52
Mountrail	51. 05
Nelson	35. 51
Oliver	32. 99
Pembina	15. 96
Pierce	34. 94
Ramsey	24. 11
Ransom	29. 23
Renville	42. 14
Richland	27. 42
Rolette	34. 86
Sargent	25. 46
Sheridan	46. 46
Sioux	53. 65
Slope	64. 14
Stark	37. 61
Steele	30. 92
Stutsman	39. 48
Towner	25. 96
Traill	16. 99
Walsh	16. 65
Ward	31. 41
Wells	43. 17
Williams	57. 08
State average	34. 00

The above figures indicate a percentage delinquency distribution as follows:

Percentages of delinquency	Number of counties	Percentage of total number of counties in each group
Under 20	5	9. 4
20 to 30	11	20. 8
30 to 40	16	30. 2
40 to 50	6	11. 3
50 to 60	11	20. 8
Over 60	4	7. 5
	53	100. 0

It should be noted that this percent of delinquency existed 1 year after the taxes became due, after both installments of real-estate taxes had become delinquent, and after taxes had been offered for sale at the annual tax sale on the second Tuesday in December.

FINANCIAL CONDITION OF STATE GOVERNMENT

In the fiscal year ended June 30, 1939, the State collected $11,413,169 in taxes. Of this total, $4,557,368 was shared with local governmental units in order to assist local governments in the maintenance of public schools, construction and maintenance of highways, and supplying necessary relief. Of the total amount shared with local units, $1,650,000 was disbursed as State aid to schools; $1,452,732 (of motor-vehicle and fuel taxes) was shared with counties for highway purposes; $346,941 (from liquor taxes) was disbursed to counties to be applied as a credit on real-estate taxes; 1,079,023 was disbursed as State aid to counties, for county poor-relief purposes, and $28,672 was disbursed to cities and villages for fire-protection purposes.

This left a balance of $6,855,801 for all State purposes. Of the total retained by the State, $609,054 was dedicated to meet interest and sinking-fund requirements; and $832,338 was required to meet requirements for social-security programs for the care of the aged, the blind and dependent, neglected and crippled children, which left a total of only $5,414,409 to meet the operating expenses of the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of State government, the maintenance and operation of all penal, charitable, and educational institutions, and for the operation and maintenance of all other functions and activities of the State government.

The 1937 legislative assembly appropriated $4,900,000, to be available for relief and public-assistance programs during the 1937–39 biennium. The appropriation for general relief proved to be insufficient and the 1939 legislative assembly made an emergency appropriation of $927,923 to meet the deficiency in the regular relief appropriation. This made the total of relief appropriations $5,827,923 for the 1937–39 biennial period.

The appropriation for the 1939–41 biennium for relief and welfare programs totaled $4,954,700. (This was in addition to the emergency deficiency appropriation cited above.) The amount appropriated for the 1939–41 biennium for public-relief programs was 29.9 percent of the total State budget—exclusive of earmarked tax collections for highway purposes.

A comparative statement of the 1929 and 1939 appropriation from general-revenue collections appears on the following page.

Comparative analysis of appropriations of the 1929 and 1939 legislative assemblies from general State revenue fund

	Amount appropriated in—				Increase +; decrease −
	1929	Percent	1939	Percent	
I. General government	[1] $1,045,748	11.6	$1,416,218	8.6	+$370,470
II. Protection to person and property	605,427	6.7	724,512	4.4	+119,085
III. Corrections	591,774	6.5	570,622	3.5	−21,152
IV. Conservation of health and sanitation	413,520	4.6	560,096	3.4	+146,576
V. Development of agriculture and marketing	691,801	7.6	552,678	3.3	−139,123
VI. Development and conservation of natural resources	61,040	.7	139,850	.8	+78,810
VII. Highways			[2] 21.800	.1	+21,800
VIII. Charities	265,480	2.9	5,192,067	31.4	+4,926,537
IX. Hospitals	429,590	4.7	271,086	1.6	−158,504
X. Education	4,851,095	53.7	6,864,625	41.5	+2,013,530
XI. Recreation			21,000	.1	+21,000
XII. Miscellaneous	88,991	1.0	213,220	1.3	+124,229
	9,044,466	100.0	16,547,774	100.0	+7,503,308
Amount appropriated for general relief and other public-assistance programs included under "Charities" in above statement	None		4,954,700		
Percent of total amount appropriated				29.9	

[1] Includes State land commission and industrial commission.
[2] Maintenance of Yellowstone Bridge. McKenzie County.

NOTE.—Due to a constitutional change effective July 1, 1939, the fiscal policies of the State were revised in 1939 and the above statement is for that reason not an entirely accurate comparison.

It is conservatively estimated that the revenues of the State government during the current biennium will fall approximately $4,000,000 short of the amount required to meet legislative appropriations for the biennium.

UNBALANCED COUNTY BUDGETS

Under the statutes of North Dakota practically every item of general expense which may be incurred by county governments is mandatory upon the county. Each county is required to pay its officials the amount of salary specified by the laws of the State, pay court costs, pay election expense, maintain a courthouse in which public business can be transacted, pay for the care of insane, feeble minded, and tubercular in State institutions, etc. In addition, care of the poor is an obligation placed upon county governments by statute. None of these activities are optional. They are all mandatory.

In the face of such situation, we have laws which prohibit the levy of taxes for general county purposes in excess of 8 mills on the dollar. According to the best information which is available, the mandatory activities and functions imposed upon county governments by law, exclusive of poor relief, cannot be financed through an 8-mill levy in approximately 22 counties in North Dakota. The total amount produced by the application of an 8-mill levy to the taxable value, plus all general revenue collections, of the county, not earmarked for special purposes, produces an amount which in 22 counties is less than the amount required to finance activities which are mandatory on the counties under the laws of the State, excluding poor relief from consideration.

Thirty-four percent of the 1938 State levy was uncollected on January 1, 1940. Tax delinquency, in connection with the State levy, was in excess of 50 percent of the amount levied in 15 counties.

Restating the foregoing it may be said that—

First. In 22 counties in North Dakota out of the 53 counties it is impossible to levy sufficient to balance the county budget.

Second. In 37 of the 53 counties over 30 percent of the 1938 levy was uncollected on January 1, 1940.

Third. In most of the counties of the State a large percentage of the amount of taxes currently being levied from year to year will never be collected.

While it is true that the 8-mill limitation on county general revenue levies imposed under the statutes of North Dakota is an arbitrary limitation which can be readily removed by the legislative assembly, nevertheless it is a practical impossibility to secure an adjustment in this limitation. The inequity and iniquity of imposing additional taxes on a people without the resources to meet present tax burdens is the argument that overwhelms every attempt to secure a change in this limitation.

Some additional idea of the situation of county governments may be obtained from the collection records of the public-welfare board, in connection with collections from counties covering counties' share of old-age assistance and aid-to-dependent-children payments. The record of registered warrants, issued by the various county governments and held by the public-welfare board at the end of each 6 months' period since June 30, 1936, is as follows:

Date	Amount of registered warrants held by public welfare board	Number of counties represented
June 30, 1936		
Dec. 31, 1936	$23, 509	13
June 30, 1937	53, 158	17
Dec. 31, 1937	77, 490	19
June 30. 1938	111, 142	20
Dec. 31, 1938	$65, 277	23
June 30, 1939	148, 183	23
Dec. 31, 1939	221, 025	24
Feb. 29, 1940	248, 839	25

The above figures do not include a total of $103,654 in registered warrants sold to the Bank of North Dakota by the public welfare board during the above periods. The steady increase in the number of counties doing business on a registered-warrant basis, or on a deferred-payment basis, is indicative of the increasing financial difficulties confronting county governments.

As of February 29, 1940, variout county governments owed the public welfare board a total of $366,563.42 for old-age assistance and aid-to-dependent-children advances. These debt obligations were as follows:

For old-age assistance (of this amount $52,914.81 was on open account and $143,245.91 was evidenced by registered warrants)	$196, 160. 71
For aid to dependent children (of this amount $64,808.31 was on open account and $105,494.40 was evidenced by registered warrants)	170, 402.71

In one county no reimbursements have ever been made to the State to cover the county's share of old-age assistance and aid to dependent children. Accounts of this county are unpaid for a period of 3 years and 8 months. Another county is 20 months delinquent; three counties are 12 months delinquent; one county 9 months; another 8 months; and another 6 months.

It should be noted that counties were responsible for one-third of the cost of aid to dependent children prior to January 1, 1940, and since that date have been responsible for 25 percent of the cost; also that prior to July 1, 1939, counties were responsible for 25 percent of the cost of old-age-assistance payments and since that date have been responsible for only 7½ percent of the cost of such payments.

Gross debt of county governments, classified by character and gross debt less sinking fund assets, June 30, 1939

County	Gross debt			Sinking fund	Gross debt less sinking fund assets		
	Total	Bonded debt	Other debt		Total	Per capita	Percent of tax base
Adams	$93, 731	$53, 000	$40, 731	$1, 549	$92, 182	$14. 53	2. 7
Barnes	125, 449	18, 000	107, 449	20, 259	105, 190	5. 59	. 7
Benson	150, 567	127, 000	23, 567	2, 166	148, 401	11. 14	1. 6
Billings	164, 157	133, 000	31, 157	85, 041	79, 116	25. 20	4. 6
Bottineau	190, 852	137, 000	53, 852	8, 588	182, 264	12. 27	1. 7
Bowman	164, 578	93, 500	71, 078	[1] 5, 106	169, 684	33. 15	5. 2
Burke	279, 979	49, 000	230, 979	1, 360	278, 619	27. 87	4. 6
Burleigh	459, 765	414, 000	45, 765	5, 050	454, 715	23. 00	3. 8
Cass	4, 415	--------	4, 415	-------	4, 415	. 09	---------
Cavalier	91, 657	70, 000	21, 657	-------	91, 657	6. 30	. 8
Dickey	95, 060	62, 000	33, 060	8, 135	86, 925	7. 99	. 9
Divide	448, 000	335, 000	113, 000	46, 599	401, 401	41. 66	7. 7
Dunn	324, 078	263, 000	61, 078	4, 102	319, 976	33. 45	5. 5
Eddy	118, 423	61, 000	57, 423	5, 314	113, 109	17. 82	2. 3
Emmons	231, 658	114, 000	117, 658	3, 216	228, 442	18. 32	3. 9
Foster	87, 813	52, 000	35, 813	5, 070	82, 743	13. 02	1. 5
Golden Valley	2, 493	---------	2, 493	--------	2, 493	. 60	. 1
Grand Forks	19, 963	---------	19, 963	--------	19, 963	. 62	. 1
Grant	478, 357	367, 525	110, 832	7, 787	470, 570	46. 43	10. 5
Griggs	109, 303	---------	109, 303	--------	109, 303	15. 87	1. 7
Hettinger	256, 074	181, 000	75, 074	25, 876	230, 198	26. 17	5. 5
Kidder	78, 242	32, 000	46, 242	2, 829	75, 413	9. 39	1. 5
LaMoure	118, 766	65, 000	53, 766	6, 563	112, 203	9. 74	1. 3
Logan	150, 907	81, 000	69, 907	3, 598	147, 309	18. 21	3. 7
McHenry	207, 437	184, 000	23, 437	57, 638	149, 799	9. 70	1. 6
McIntosh	136, 362	83, 800	52, 562	13, 681	122, 681	12. 75	2. 6
McKenzie	567, 022	454, 000	113, 022	13, 413	553, 609	57. 02	12. 1
McLean	450, 958	190, 000	260, 958	1, 793	449, 165	24. 97	5. 4
Mercer	268, 088	205, 000	63, 088	6, 448	261, 640	27. 49	5. 5
Morton	945, 450	711, 000	234, 450	107, 240	838, 210	42. 66	7. 7
Mountrail	396, 512	272, 000	124, 512	1, 461	395, 051	29. 17	5. 8
Nelson	88, 368	36, 000	52, 368	3, 341	85, 027	8. 33	1. 1
Oliver	60, 892	40, 000	20, 892	14, 255	46, 637	10. 94	1. 9
Pembina	7, 751	---------	7, 751	--------	7, 751	. 53	. 1
Pierce	247, 555	139, 000	108, 555	44, 169	203, 386	22. 41	3. 0
Ramsey	124, 873	100, 000	24, 873	14, 344	110, 529	6. 80	. 8
Ransom	242, 530	160, 000	82, 530	19, 286	223, 244	20. 33	3. 2
Renville	91, 934	47, 000	44, 934	2, 512	89, 422	12. 31	2. 2
Richland	---------	---------	---------	--------	---------	--------	---------
Rolette	316, 244	161, 000	155, 244	22, 003	294, 241	27. 35	6. 1
Sargent	80, 089	37, 000	43, 089	3, 425	76, 664	8. 25	1. 0
Sheridan	210, 126	112, 000	98, 126	3, 979	206, 147	27. 96	5. 7
Sioux	134, 695	73, 500	61, 195	2, 728	131, 967	28. 16	11. 7
Slope	139, 607	81, 000	58, 607	8, 266	131, 341	31. 65	5. 2
Stark	430, 277	309, 000	121, 277	150, 357	279, 920	18. 25	3. 4
Steele	37, 289	27, 000	10, 289	4, 999	32, 290	4. 63	. 5
Stutsman	208, 028	174, 000	34, 028	12, 720	195, 308	7. 48	1. 1

[1] Credit.

Gross debt of county governments, classified by character and gross debt less sinking fund assets, June 30, 1939—Continued

County	Gross debt			Sinking fund	Gross debt less sinking fund assets		
	Total	Bonded debt	Other debt		Total	Per capita	Percent of tax base
Towner	52, 539	52, 000	539	220	52, 319	6. 23	0. 7
Traill	49, 351	30, 000	19, 351	1, 993	47, 358	3. 76	. 4
Walsh	210, 537	125, 000	85, 537	4, 416	206, 121	10. 28	1. 5
Ward	1, 000, 183	606, 000	394, 183	73, 324	926, 859	27. 59	5. 6
Wells	156, 469	37, 000	119, 469	3, 501	152, 968	11. 51	1. 6
Williams	642, 444	437, 000	205, 444	79, 716	562, 728	28. 78	4. 5
Total	11, 747, 897	7, 591, 325	4, 156, 572	909, 224	10, 838, 673	15. 92	2. 4

Gross debt, less sinking fund assets of North Dakota counties, 1932 and 1939

[Includes debt of county governments only]

County	1932	1939	Increase	County	1932	1939	Increase
Adams	$29, 000	$92, 182	$63, 182	Mercer	94, 000	261, 640	167, 640
Barnes	43, 000	105, 190	62, 190	Morton	309, 000	838, 210	529, 210
Benson	17, 000	148, 401	131, 401	Mountrail	134, 000	395, 051	261, 051
Billings	62, 000	79, 116	17, 116	Nelson	----------	85, 027	85, 027
Bottineau	15, 000	182, 264	167, 264	Oliver	67, 000	46, 637	[1] 20, 363
Bowman	61, 000	169, 684	108, 684	Pembina	2, 000	7, 751	5, 751
Burke	48, 000	278, 619	230, 619	Pierce	47, 000	203, 386	156, 386
Burleigh	295, 000	454, 715	159, 715	Ramsey	----------	110, 529	110, 529
Cass	203, 000	4, 415	[1] 198, 585	Ransom	----------	223, 244	223, 244
Cavalier	----------	91, 657	91, 657	Renville	----------	89, 422	89, 422
Dickey	27, 000	86, 925	59, 925	Richland	27, 000	----------	[1] 27, 000
Divide	177, 000	401, 401	224, 401	Rolette	46, 000	294, 241	248, 241
Dunn	103, 000	319, 976	216, 976	Sargent	28, 000	76, 664	48, 664
Eddy	6, 000	113, 109	107, 109	Sheridan	48, 000	206, 147	158, 147
Emmons	----------	228, 442	228, 442	Sioux	101, 000	131, 967	30, 967
Foster	----------	82, 743	82, 743	Slope	35, 000	131, 341	96, 341
Golden Valley	30, 000	2, 493	[1] 27, 507	Stark	184, 000	279, 920	95, 920
Grand Forks	4, 000	19, 963	15, 963	Steele	9, 000	32, 290	23, 290
Grant	371, 000	470, 570	99, 570	Stutsman	50, 000	195, 308	145, 308
Griggs	----------	109, 303	109, 303	Towner	----------	52, 319	52, 319
Hettinger	61, 000	230, 198	169, 198	Traill	93, 000	47, 358	[1] 45, 642
Kidder	----------	75, 413	75, 413	Walsh	64, 000	206, 121	142, 121
LaMoure	11, 000	112, 203	101, 203	Ward	348, 000	926, 859	578, 859
Logan	25, 000	147, 309	122, 309	Wells	----------	152, 968	152, 968
McHenry	46, 000	149, 799	103, 799	Williams	171, 000	562, 728	391, 728
McIntosh	89, 000	122, 681	33, 681				
McKenzie	197, 000	553, 609	356, 609	Total	3,777,000	10,838,673	----------
McLean	----------	449, 165	449, 165	Net increase	----------	----------	7,061,673

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[1] Decrease.

INCREASE IN COUNTY DEBT, 1932–39

The comparative statement of county debt for 1932 and 1939 indicates that in 48 of the 53 counties there was an increase in county debt during the 7-year period. The table shows that total county debt of all counties, less sinking fund assets, increased from $3,777,000 in 1932 to $10,838,673 in 1939. The percentage increase was 187 percent. Nearly all of this increase in indebtedness is due to unbalanced budgets resulting from tax delinquency and expenditures for relief beyond the fiscal capacity of county governments to meet from current revenues.

PUBLIC DEBT

The total gross debt less sinking fund assets of State and local governments in North Dakota, exclusive of special assessment debt, on June 30, 1939, was approximately $50,008,064 or $73.45 per capita. Including special assessment debt of $7,179,481, the total gross debt less sinking fund assets was $57,187,545 or $83.99 per capita. Most of this indebtedness, with the exception of county debt, was incurred during prosperous times, when debt burden was probably not excessive.

Gross debt less sinking funds, June 30, 1939

	Debt	Per capita
State	$22,864,442	$33.58
County	10,838,673	15.92
Cities, villages, townships, etc	5,283,411	7.76
Schools	11,021,538	16.19
Subtotal	50,008,064	73.45
Special assessment debt for cities, villages, and park districts	7,179,481	10.54
Total	57,187,545	83.99

The foundation upon which these debts now rest has been undermined. The property-tax base, for instance, since 1929 shrunk 54½ percent, and as the property tax represents the source from which these debts must be retired, this shrinkage in the tax base is very significant. Of even more significance than the shrinkage in the property-tax base is the shrinkage in the agricultural income and total income. Compared with average agricultural income in the predepression years 1924–28, 1939 income shows a shrinkage of 42 percent. Income figures for 1937, the last year for which the United States Department of Commerce has published income estimates, showed a shrinkage compared with 1929 of 29 percent. For the year 1935, the drop from 1929 figures was 65 percent. Since that time, there has been a gradual increase in total income compared with the 1929 base year.

THE RELIEF SITUATION

Since a year ago, farm relief supplied through the Farm Security Administration has dropped 88 percent. This drop represents in part a decrease in relief in needs and in part a restriction of Farm Security Administration relief grants to operating farmers only. This has meant that stranded farm families and farm laborers have been excluded from Farm Security Administration grant benefits and that the relief burden for such relief people has been thrown on the State and county governments except to the extent that the Work Projects Administration has assisted in taking care of the situation.

The decreases in the number of persons employed on Federal work programs under the Work Projects Administration and other Federal agencies have created an emergency situation in North Dakota. The proposed additional decreases in the number of people employed on Federal works projects under the Work Projects Administration will greatly aggravate an already serious situation.

The limitation in Federal programs which is already effective has created a bad situation which is very certain to become much worse if additional limitations are put into effect. State and county governments will have to assume a very large additional financial burden at a time when they are already sufficiently laden with financial burdens—at a time when they have less ability to meet such burdens than ever before.

Neither the State nor the counties of North Dakota have the financial resources to meet additional relief burdens. Both the resources and the credit of many counties is exhausted. Tax burdens now are in excess of the ability of the people to pay. County debts have increased about 187 percent in 7 years, due to the inability of county governments to balance their budgets, because of heavy relief expenditures and extensive tax delinquency.

The State debt cannot be increased but slightly without a constitutional amendment which must be approved by a majority of the voters. The history of recent years indicates the absurdity of expecting the people to approve an increase in State debt when there is grave doubt as to their ability to liquidate existing debt.

What is to be done about the situation? The continuation of Federal emergency relief programs is imperative if human suffering is to be averted. This, however, is not the final answer. It is merely a stop-gap solution essential to provide the time to work out a permanent program of rehabilitation or reemployment of those now dependent on public support.

The most immediate requirement in the very serious crisis confronting the State is the recognition on the part of the Congress and the Federal administration that the State and counties cannot assume additional relief burdens when they are unable to meet present burdens. More relief is not a satisfactory final solution of the problem, but it is a necessary temporary solution.

For the correction of conditions that have led to mass dependency, it is necessary that constructive measures be taken to bring about an adjustment of the unbalanced economic conditions where want exists because too great an abundance and where unemployment exists because of an excess of ability to produce. The danger is real that without a substantial increase in Work Projects Administration employment in North Dakota combined with a plan for immediate rehabilitation of stranded farm families there will be very great distress among thousands of families.

Relief expenditures from State, county, and local funds for direct relief, administration, and sponsorship of work-relief projects, 1936 to 1939, inclusive

Year	Expenditures for direct relief and administration		Sponsor's contribution, all divisions of Government	Total
	From county funds	From State funds		
1936	$785,794	$1,440,410	$2,781,181	$5,007,385
1937	2,466,834	1,152,665	1,706,368	5,305,867
1938	2,118,563	1,503,660	3,155,367	6,777,590
1939	2,053,289	1,432,856	2,534,359	6,020,504
Total, 4 years	7,404,480	5,529,591	10,177,275	23,111,346

NOTE.—Includes relief expenditures for all programs.

TESTIMONY OF E. A. WILLSON—Resumed

STATE SETTLEMENT LAWS

Mr. WILLSON. Might I be permitted to comment on the set-up insofar as State settlement is concerned? It was brought out in that case between North and South Dakota this morning. As State director of the welfare board, I am very familiar with that case, and I would like to say it is one of numerous similar cases, difficulties we have had with South Dakota. Apparently, in South Dakota, the State provides no money for direct relief, depending entirely upon the counties to take care of the direct relief cases.

Chairman TOLAN. Well, Mr. Willson, that problem isn't peculiar to North and South Dakota alone. We find it in New York, New Jersey, and other States. That is right, isn't it?

Mr. WILLSON. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. What is your suggestion upon settlement laws? Would you abolish them all? Would you have uniformity, and if uniformity, what limits would you place on the time?

Mr. WILLSON. I would certainly be in favor of uniform settlement laws. A great deal of our difficulty in migration is due to the lack of uniformity in settlement laws, and as Mr. Hulm stated, and I think a member of the committee stated, here was a family without a country. They had no residence any place, and that is the law. There are many people in the same situation.

Mr. **Parsons**. But you wouldn't advocate the abandonment of settlement laws altogether?

Mr. **Willson**. Not unless there could be Federal aid on an equalization basis to the States for relief, as we in North Dakota give aid to the counties on an equalization basis from State funds.

Mr. **Parsons**. Right there, Mr. Willson, of course, you realize that the Federal Government has no right to say to the individual States what residence laws they will enact, whether it's 1 year or 5. They have raised barriers, some of them, from 6 months up to 5 years, as you know. But if the Federal Government participated in assistance for these migrant destitute families, it could lay down the conditions under which that aid could be granted, couldn't it?

Mr. **Willson**. Yes.

Mr. **Parsons**. And, therefore, you tell this committee that you are in favor of some sort of uniform settlement laws?

Mr. **Willson**. Well, you have a need for Federal aid for migrant relief families, destitute families, or families who can't acquire residence.

Mr. **Parsons**. In other words, the load is too big for the individual States?

Mr. **Willson**. Yes.

Mr. **Parsons**. Go right ahead now.

LACK OF FEDERAL POLICY FOR LAND SETTLERS CAUSE OF MIGRATION

Mr. **Willson**. Our difficulty with respect to migrant farm families is not a problem insofar as migrant families coming into North Dakota as it is our families going into California. We have had a great many North Dakota families who left the State, and we have a very large number of farm families, farm resident families, stranded in our towns and cities who would like to go some place, if there was a place for them. As I pointed out in my brief, the problem results, in western North Dakota particularly, from a lack of any policy, on the part of the Federal Government, which might be designed to permit a settler to make a living.

When western North Dakota was settled, a homesteader could get a quarter section of land. When eastern North Dakota was settled, when the Red River Valley was settled, with fine tillable land, and much more rainfall, the average settler could get a homestead, a tree claim, and a preemption, and the average settler got about that acreage, about three quarter sections. By the time western North Dakota was settled, where the percentage of tillable land was only about 50 percent as compared with 100 percent in the Red River Valley, and where the rainfall is much lower and agricultural production much more hazardous, the homesteaders could get only a quarter section; the tree claim and preemption acts had been repealed, and the enlarged Homestead Act of 1909 was passed after most of western North Dakota was settled, so it was practically impossible for the settler of western North Dakota to make a living. He had to move on, to get a larger acreage. The survey which we made while I was in research work, showed that there had begun to be a considerable decrease in number of farmers and an increase in the average size of farm in western North Dakota, and in 1925 that condition was continuing. It was taking care of itself, because the people who left the farms sold out to the farmers who stayed; those who left went west or into Canada or Montana; again they were taking care of themselves, and the readjustment was taking place, because in time this would have resulted in large enough farm units in North Dakota, western North Dakota, to support a family. But before that happened, the drought of the thirties and the depression of 1929 struck, so there was no place for these people to go to settle more land; they had nothing with which to get out of the country; there were no jobs for them on the Pacific coast or in Canada, though a great many of them moved.

Mr. PARSONS. You had a falling water table in the Dakotas, too, didn't you?

Mr. WILLSON. That is true.

Mr. PARSONS. Beginning in the late twenties?

Mr. WILLSON. There was a very marked fall in the water table, which in many areas resulted in farmers being unable to get water even for their stock.

Mr. PARSONS. There is some restoration being made, now, we understand, in the last few years. You have had more snow?

Mr. WILLSON. And more rain.

Mr. PARSONS. That is materially restoring the water table?

Mr. WILLSON. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. Well, how long, at this pace, will it take to restore that water level?

Mr. WILLSON. I don't know. I am not familiar enough with the water situation.

Mr. PARSONS. What have you heard speculated about it, by other experts?

Mr. WILLSON. Well, it probably would take a long time. I don't know. I haven't heard.

Mr. PARSONS. The statement was made to me yesterday, from those who have studied the problem, that for 25 or 30 years, here, they have been losing moisture.

Mr. WILLSON. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. And that if the normal rainfall of the good years was restored it would take probably 35 or 40 years to restore the tables and the moisture conditions that they had here in Nebraska 40 years ago. Do you think that would be partially if not wholly true in the Dakotas?

Mr. WILLSON. Yes; it would.

Mr. PARSONS. That is all, Mr. Chairman.

Chairman TOLAN. From your statement, Mr. Willson, it is noted that the migration from North Dakota has kept increasing since 1921. Did the activities of the Federal Government aid in keeping people on the land, or did it hasten the migration during a period shortly after 1929?

FEDERAL LAND USE PROGRAM INCREASED MIGRATION

Mr. WILLSON. I think the activities of the Federal Government, to some extent, hastened migration in limited areas, where the Government bought land under the land-use program.

Chairman TOLAN. Yes.

Mr. WILLSON. But that program was very desirable, because the people who were attempting to make a living in that area, because of the small acreage and low rainfall, were on relief, were receiving assistance, and it was much better for the Government to purchase that land and attempt to set up grazing units so that the people who were left there could be self-supporting, even though it meant the movement to towns and cities of a great many farm families who were stranded and are at the present time, who are on relief and who probably will be on relief, unless some way can be found to get them on farms.

EFFECT OF AGRICULTURAL ADJUSTMENT ADMINISTRATION PROGRAM ON MIGRATION

Chairman TOLAN. Do you attach any significance to the A. A. A. program to migration?

Mr. WILLSON. The effect of the A. A. A. program is beginning to be very seriously felt in the eastern and central part of the State in the past year or so. As a result of the benefit payments, it is very apparent that a large number of large land owners and land operators, are beginning to see the insurance there is in this triple A program, and the possibility of large profits, and I have been receiving increasingly large numbers of reports from counties in the eastern and central part of the State of farmers being pushed off from their land and into towns and on relief because the landowners are wanting to operate the land themselves. Big operators have purchased or rented very large acreages, thereby forcing the small family-sized farmer off the land and into towns and on relief. And that is one of the most serious things that is happening.

Mr. CURTIS. May I ask a question? You feel, then, that the writers of agricultural legislation must give some more time and attention toward making the rewards greater for the family-size farm, to stop that trend?

Mr. WILLSON. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. What is the limitation now?

Mr. WILLSON. It is my understanding it is $10,000 for the owner or the operator.

Mr. PARSONS. What would you suggest?

RECOMMENDS ENCOURAGEMENT OF FAMILY-SIZED FARM

Mr. WILLSON. Well, I think it should not be over $1,000, personally, to encourage help to the family-sized farmer and discourage the larger operator. I think this legislation, gentlemen, is fine, but like many things that are done, the results cannot always be foreseen, and I think there is need for change in the legislation to meet the problems which the program is showing up.

Mr. **Parsons**. They tell me that in the early days of this country 85 percent of the people were on farms; that is, raising their own foodstuffs, and they were never hungry, anyway. We have got away from that now; we have big farms where there isn't even a vegetable patch. So your suggestion would be to set a goal of helping the poorer people so they could maintain a home and at least raise their own food, anyway?

Mr. **Willson**. Yes.

Mr. **Parsons**. And you wouldn't be in favor of that large allowance of $10,000. You'd want to cut that down?

Mr. **Willson**. Yes.

Mr. **Parsons**. I think you have a very valuable suggestion there.

Mr. **Willson**. I don't see how we are possibly going to take care of the present population of this country, and certainly not the normal increase in population which is coming largely from the farms, unless there is encouragement to the farmer to stay on the family-size subsistence farm.

Mr. **Parsons**. Have you any other method you would suggest for strengthening the tenure of farm family?

Mr. **Willson**. One suggestion: In North Dakota they are voting at this next election on an initiated measure which exempts a small homestead unit from taxation, with an increasing tax rate as the acreage increases.

CARE OF MIGRANTS IN NORTH DAKOTA

Mr. **Parsons**. In general, what is the procedure followed in taking care of migrants who become needy or stranded in your State, Mr. Willson?

Mr. **Willson**. The procedure is for the county welfare board in the county where they become stranded to give them temporary aid, and contact the State of legal residence, if there is indication of a State of legal residence, and through the welfare agency of that State, if they acknowledge residence and authorize the return of the family to the State, our county welfare boards give transportation back to their home.

The **Chairman**. Before I forget it, Mr. Willson, I asked Mr. Hulm this morning, I think—you heard the testimony back and forth—if South Dakota has a law making it a felony to transport a destitute migrant citizen across the line into their State.

Mr. **Willson**. Yes.

The **Chairman**. They have. In other words, a fellow is punishable by imprisonment in the penitentiary. You understand they have such a law?

Mr. **Willson**. I understand that they have such a law and that the man who moved the family from Burleigh County to South Dakota, on a court order, was told he would be arrested if he brought the family in, and for that reason, the next time they were taken to the South Dakota line they weren't taken across the line; they were unloaded on the North Dakota side and asked to move over.

The CHAIRMAN. On June 29, in New York, we heard about the appellate court of that State entering a judgment deporting an Ohio family under a 100-year-old statute. You see just what a problem we are investigating, don't you? They had 5,000 legal removals last year in New York alone, and of course the constitutional question wasn't raised, or at least the court didn't decide on it. Of course, we figure that persons have a right to migrate under the Constitution, that we are all citizens—supposed to be, anyway—of the 48 States. But I never knew of a State that had a law of that kind making it a felony to transport a destitute citizen across a State line.

Mr. WILLSON. At the present time this case is in the South Dakota courts; the State of North Dakota has brought action in the courts in South Dakota, and thus it is in the South Dakota courts. The counties to which this family has moved figured it would take $15,000 or $20,000 to take care of them over a period of time.

The CHAIRMAN. Now, your welfare is handled through the counties, is it?

Mr. WILLSON. Yes.

The CHAIRMAN. Do you think it should reach further: Into the townships or villages?

Mr. WILLSON. No.

The CHAIRMAN. It becomes unweildy, then?

Mr. WILLSON. Yes; it becomes unwieldy. I think our laws in North Dakota, which provide that relief in the counties is administered by a county welfare board which is not political, appointed by the county commissioners, subject to the approval of the State board, to administer all relief and welfare activities with the supervision of the State welfare board, insofar as the expenditure of any State or Federal money is concerned, is very good. We have county administration with State welfare board supervision, and we make grants of money for direct relief to all of the counties on an equalization basis, taking into consideration the financial condition of the counties. That State aid amounts to as high as 85 and 90 percent, in the western sections, where the counties are practically bankrupt, down to 15 or 20 percent in some counties.

RESETTLEMENT PROJECTS

The CHAIRMAN. Well, Mr. Willson, some people in the United States have advocated a solution of this migration problem—the resettlement on land more fertile. Peculiarly, two of them are ex-President Hoover and Mrs. Roosevelt. That is one thing they agree on, anyway. [Laughter.]

The CHAIRMAN. Of course, this committee is going to undertake to investigate that as best we may, but we have a tremendous farm surplus now, haven't we?

Mr. WILLSON. Yes.

The CHAIRMAN. And I have been thinking, just speaking for myself, that it might afford a solution if they could be resettled, at least have a home and raise enough to eat and be together in a home, but to go in for a large-scale program of that kind, I doubt the advisability of that, just speaking for myself. Now, in your State, have you made any effort to afford resettlement of migrants?

Mr. WILLSON. There are two irrigation projects, one just about completed and one under construction, both of which have been sponsored by the North Dakota Rehabilitation Corporation and the State Water Conservation Commission, and we think that those two projects afford an opportunity for a considerable number of farm families to be self-supporting. I realize that to put farm families on subsistence homesteads where they are going to make a living is not so much going to solve the agricultural surplus problem, but yet I think it much better to put those families on farms, small farms, where they can maintain subsistence status than it is to put that family on W. P. A.

The CHAIRMAN. Yes.

PROBLEM OF DISTRIBUTION OF SURPLUS PRODUCTION

Mr. WILLSON. And personally, if every needy person in the United States had all they need and should have to eat, it would solve a good deal of our surplus problems. There is more a problem of distribution than of surplus, I believe, although there is considerable surplus production.

Mr. CURTIS. At that point a great deal of your surplus is more or less local in nature. By what I mean certain fruits and vegetables produced in an irrigated area; there may be a surplus there, but because of the cost of transportation it isn't distributed; I know, as a matter of fact, that the boys and girls of North Dakota and Nebraska and elsewhere do not have a surplus of fruits and vegetables and other things, that can be produced when we have the water supply; is that true?

Mr. WILLSON. That is very true. The distribution of surplus commodities through the Surplus Marketing Administration and through the stamp plan is a wonderful help, and I think it has resulted in an improvement in the health of many families on relief, because they have been able to have the fruits and vegetables that they should have.

FARM FORECLOSURES IN NORTH DAKOTA

The CHAIRMAN. Mr. Willson, in your exhibit B of your statement prepared by L. A. Baker, supervisor, division of accounting, finance and reports of the public welfare board, who, as you know, was invited to appear before this committee, he stated that about 43,000 out of 78,000 farmers, in 1930, or 53 percent, underwent forced foreclosure between 1921 and 1934; is that correct?

Mr. WILLSON. Yes.

The CHAIRMAN. Have the foreclosures gone on at the same rate since 1934?

Mr. WILLSON. At not quite the same rate, because we have had a number of moratoriums in North Dakota.

The CHAIRMAN. The Frazier-Lemke moratorium?

Mr. WILLSON. We have had some moratoriums, gubernatorial and legislative moratoriums, which have forbidden foreclosures and prevented a county's taking those deeds to farms, irrespective of the amount of taxes which have accumulated.

The CHAIRMAN. Have you that letter from the executive secretary to Benson County Welfare Board, dated August 20, 1940? It is very interesting, expressing a point of view about the triple A program. You might read the first two paragraphs of that.

Mr. WILLSON. This is the letter from the executive secretary to me:

> Permit me to give my personal reaction to a problem which in Benson County is becoming very alarming. I refer to the large number of tenants being forced off farms by big tractor-operating owners who farm principally for the purpose of drawing Agricultural Adjustment Administration payments.
>
> Recently authentic word came to me that John Blank, of Churches Ferry and Devils Lake, is asking 20 of his renters in Benson and Ramsey Counties to vacate the farms they have been renting, some for many years, as he intends to farm these places himself next year. Offhand, 5 of these families are known to me personally and have always been enterprising, upright families; they always have made a go of things and have never had assistance; they have farmed 3 or 4 quarters and have had a small amount of stock; they have given the buildings and the soil good care; now they must even vacate the buildings.

Mr. PARSONS. Is that a general proposition out there, or a particular exception to the rule?

Mr. WILLSON. That is not an exception. Reports from county after county are quite similar, the Farm Security Administration advised. One county called me up a few days ago and wanted to know if there is anything we could do to help 15 Farm Security borrowers who were forced off the farms they were on last year and found it impossible to secure farms, and that it would be necessary to close out these people, sell their livestock and machinery this fall unless farms could be obtained, and he said there wasn't a farm to be had, largely due to the fact that the larger operators, or the large landholders who are not operating, would prefer to rent to the large operator, and that in many instances the large owner would not rent to a man who doesn't have a tractor to operate the land. They preferred tractor farmers to horse farmers.

The CHAIRMAN. Now, Mr. Willson, what else, if anything, do you have in mind right now that you should state to this committee? Your statement covers everything pretty well, and I don't want to cut you off, but if there's anything you would like to get over to us, we should like to hear it.

Mr. WILLSON. I think that everything is in the record.

The CHAIRMAN. Well, we thank you very much, Mr. Willson, and be sure to give our respects to Governor Moses.

TESTIMONY OF JAMES L. IBERT, LACY, S. DAK.

Mr. CURTIS. Give your full name to the reporter.

Mr. IBERT. James L. Ibert.

Mr. CURTIS. How old are you, Mr. Ibert?

Mr. IBERT. Forty-four.

Mr. CURTIS. And where is your present address?

Mr. IBERT. Lacy, S. Dak. Fort Pierre is my closest town—Lacy is just a post-office address.

Mr. CURTIS. Are you married?

Mr. IBERT. Yes, sir.

Mr. CURTIS. Have you any children?

Mr. IBERT. No, sir.

Mr. CURTIS. Lacy is in Stanley County, S. Dak.?

Mr. IBERT. Yes; Stanley County.

Mr. CURTIS. That is right near the Missouri River, isn't it?

Mr. IBERT. It's about 15 miles back from the river.

Mr. CURTIS. What county is on the other side of the river?

Mr. IBERT. Hughes County.

Mr. CURTIS. How long have you lived in Stanley County, or near there?

Mr. IBERT. About 40 years.

Mr. CURTIS. What type of farming or ranching do you do at this time?

Mr. IBERT. On a ranch; I raise cattle.

Mr. CURTIS. How much land do you have?

Mr. IBERT. I lease about 3,000 acres now.

Mr. CURTIS. And how many cattle do you run?

Mr. IBERT. I have got 70 head of my own, and I have been running for another man that was on the river.

Mr. CURTIS. You do feeding and finishing them out?

Mr. IBERT. Oh, no; just graze them and sell them right to the feeder, generally.

Mr. CURTIS. Have you obtained assistance from any Government agency?

Mr. IBERT. No.

Mr. CURTIS. Have you gotten any loan of any kind?

Mr. IBERT. Oh, yes; I have a loan.

Mr. CURTIS. How much did you borrow and what for?

Mr. IBERT. A loan of $1,628; a year ago.

Mr. CURTIS. From the Farm Security Administration?

Mr. IBERT. Yes, sir.

Mr. CURTIS. Have you repaid any of this loan?

Mr. IBERT. No, sir; but this year I am going to.

Mr. CURTIS. I see; you are able to make payments when due?

Mr. IBERT. Next year will be the first year I have to make a payment, but I will be able to make the payment.

Mr. CURTIS. Let me ask you this: Do you own the 3,000 acres?

Mr. IBERT. No; I don't own any.

Mr. CURTIS. From whom do you rent it?

Mr. IBERT. I live on the school section; I own all the buildings. They give you the right to put the buildings on it and live there. And I rent the rest of it from the county and individuals.

Mr. CURTIS. What difficulties do you find with reference to leasing land?

Mr. IBERT. They have a big horse outfit right up against me.

Mr. CURTIS. A corporation farm?

Mr. IBERT. Well, it's a ranch, you see.

Mr. CURTIS. I see.

Mr. Ibert. It's an Arkansas outfit that came up here and raises horses and takes them back there, you see.

Mr. Curtis. How big a ranch have they established?

Mr. Ibert. Under fence out about 20 miles one way and 15 or 20 the other way.

Mr. Curtis. How many horses do they run in there?

Mr. Ibert. I couldn't say exactly; they assessed about 1,200 this year.

Mr. Curtis. Is that ranch increasing in size?

Mr. Ibert. Yes. They have been going out each year and obtaining more land. Most of the land has been let go back for taxes, and they buy this land according to the quantity of it; they give 50 cents or a dollar. Of course, they have a tax title, and then they try to get the man that owned it, and they give him 15 or 25 dollars and get that.

Mr. Curtis. Is this actually crowding your neighbors?

Mr. Ibert. They have crowded out five different men I know.

Mr. Curtis. Where have these families gone?

Mr. Ibert. Just moved out to different places. One of them, they bought him another place in order to obtain that; they made a trade with him. They had him shut in so he was only on a quarter section, and there was nothing he could do. And now they're over beside him again. They've bought all the land and got up beside him again. [Laughter.]

Mr. Curtis. Do you feel there is a possibility that you might be forced from the land that you are on?

Mr. Ibert. Well, I don't know. I had a pasture, a certain pasture, and we never let any cattle in there in the summer. I had it fenced—rented it, of course—and a lot of it was county land. He took two sections of that last year, and this year he turned around and took another pasture. Before that I had some land—I had run this fence along a little way, and the first time I saw him he came down and he said he wanted to know if I'd let him fence that in, wanted to know how much I'd take, and I said, "I don't see any reason for taking anything." I said, "A neighbor's a neighbor." I just told him to fence that in if he wanted to. And he said that was pretty nice of me and said, "I'll never come on this side of the road," and then about 2 years he took two sections of my pasture, but he's got a lot more the other way. I suppose he's got 20 sections on the other side of the road.

Mr. Curtis. Now, Mr. Ibert, as I understand it, you have been brought here by our investigating staff to give this picture to this committee, of eliminating family sized farms. Now, do you know, has this corporation violated any laws?

Mr. Ibert. Well, I guess not, as far as I know. Of course, they get a lot of land there that could be rented, that nobody else can get ahold of, because they'll go out and buy this land and leave three or four quarters behind, see, and they fence it in, and no one could come in and lease this.

Mr. Curtis. And you feel that if you are forced to leave that, you don't know where you'll go or what you will be able to do?

Mr. IBERT. Well, I'd have to hunt a new place. If they run a man out, he just has to move. They may not bother me any more. I'm on the edge of some rough country that's very poor—third grade; 1934 and 1936 cleaned out a lot of it.

Mr. CURTIS. At any rate, this is a problem which should have the attention of this committee, the matter of the lands and the disposal of the lands that have been taken over by the State for taxes?

Mr. IBERT. By the county commissioners.

Mr. CURTIS. The county and the State—apparently your State legislature should give some attention to the matter of disposing of it, so that at least they could try to stop the elimination of the family sized farm.

We appreciate your coming here.

Mr. PARSONS. About how many thousand acres does this firm own?

Mr. IBERT. I couldn't tell you.

Mr. PARSONS. Twenty-five or thirty thousand acres?

Mr. IBERT. I should say. But you see, they leave land in behind, that's under their pasture, so unless you counted it all up you wouldn't know.

Mr. CURTIS. They get hold of a hundred acres and fence in 500; is that right?

Mr. IBERT. That is right.

Mr. PARSONS. And the fellows lose it?

Mr. IBERT. Yes. Some of them stay on, and some of them keep the taxes up, the people that are in the East and haven't been back in 20 years. They left it there and they have heard stories of oil people in there, and they're dreaming, and they've just kept holding it. Wherever the taxes have gone back, they buy it.

Mr. PARSONS. They have got a tax title?

Mr. IBERT. Yes, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. What do they raise on this—grass, principally?

Mr. IBERT. Just the sod.

Mr. PARSONS. It is grazing land?

Mr. IBERT. It is grazing land; yes.

Mr. PARSONS. Do you have any agricultural lands or is it purely a ranch?

Mr. IBERT. Well, purely a ranch. I farm a little for feed.

Mr. PARSONS. How many cattle do you have on the 3,000 acres?

Mr. IBERT. About 125 this summer. But, of course, we wouldn't need that much land.

Mr. PARSONS. There is still a drought, though?

Mr. IBERT. Yes; and the grass is gradually crowding in. It is getting better, but a third of it doesn't have grass, I would say.

Mr. PARSONS. They have horses and mules on this ranch?

Mr. IBERT. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. And then they take them out and sell them?

Mr. IBERT. Well, first they'd send them to Arkansas and raise them for 2 years and then send them back to the market. Now they're trying to raise their own stock.

Mr. PARSONS. How many men do they employ to look after that land, approximately?

Mr. IBERT. Only about three men; something like that.

Mr. PARSONS. Three families?

Mr. IBERT. No; they have one family and the rest single men. But in the summer they have a lot of them come up here, with a truck, as many as they can get to stand up. They bring them from Arkansas to help put in fence, and then take them back.

Mr. PARSONS. Take them back to Arkansas?

Mr. IBERT. Yes. They're out in the morning at 6 o'clock and work then till dark, and rush them to get it done as fast as they can. They work them as hard as they can.

Mr. PARSONS. Is it pretty hard work putting up fences?

Mr. IBERT. They couldn't get men down there to work that hard; they bring them from Arkansas.

Mr. PARSONS. Have you put in any fences?

Mr. IBERT. I have built a lot of them myself.

Mr. PARSONS. Do they bring the post holes in from Arkansas?

Mr. IBERT. No; that is the only thing they don't bring in. [Laughter.] They get almost everything else from Arkansas and bring it in.

Mr. PARSONS. Well, thank you very much.

Mr. IBERT. If a little man wants to buy a little land, they will give quite a lot for that to keep him off.

Mr. CURTIS. Mr. Chairman, I have had submitted to me two statements I wish to keep for the record. One is from Mrs. John Olson and the other one is a brief from the Republican Valley Conservation Association.

The CHAIRMAN. Let them be made a part of the record.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT OF STATEMENT BY HARRY STRUNK, PRESIDENT OF REPUBLICAN VALLEY CONSERVATION ASSOCIATION

The CHAIRMAN. Mr. Harry Strunk, as president of the Republican Valley Conservation Association, who resides at McCook, Nebr., and is also the publisher of the McCook Daily Gazette, is here before our committee and has submitted a copy of a brief heretofore submitted to the National Resources Planning Board at their conference held in McCook, Nebr., on September 5, 1940.

This brief contains many valuable facts, statements, and findings, some of which have been heretofore published in the flood-control hearings of Congress and elsewhere. This committee is unable to print this entire brief in our hearings, but the following observations are noted.

The Republican River and its tributaries arise in Kansas and Colorado, flow through southwestern Nebraska, reenter Kansas, enter the Kansas River, and on into the Missouri River. This river valley has two definite problems that have a material effect on the problem of interstate migration of destitute persons. This valley is subject to both severe drought and severe floods.

In 1935 a flood occurred in this valley that took the lives of 110 or more people in Nebraska. The flood menace is constant and each year there is a definite, marked, and progressive flood loss. Since this 1935 flood much of the finest land in this valley has been practically ruined and will not again be productive until flood control and irrigation is provided.

Technically, all of this Republican River territory is an area where the farming requires supplemental water. Irrigation is both needed and feasible.

This committee takes note of the fact that the counties through which the Repubican River and its tributaries flow have suffered a severe loss of population in the last 10 years; that foreclosures, tax sales, evictions, poverty, and hardship are rampant in this valley. All of these factors contribute to the problem now being investigated by this committee. This committee takes cognizance of the point made by the Republican Valley Conservation Association that the problem of the outward migration of destitute families and individuals of this section of southwest Nebraska will not be solved until the problem of water control and water use is solved for the Republican Valley and its tributaries. This excellent brief will be received and made a part of the official files of this committee. It will be of great help to the members of this committee and its staff in their deliberations and reports.

Mr. Strunk, the committee wishes to thank you for this very valuable contribution to our studies.

(The two statements referred to were received by the reporter as exhibits and are held in committee files.)

Chairman Tolan. The committee will adjourn until 2 o'clock this afternoon.

(Thereupon, at 12:40 p. m., an adjournment was taken until 2 p. m. of the same day.)

AFTERNOON SESSION

The hearing was resumed at 2:10 p. m., at the expiration of the recess.

Chairman Tolan. The committee will please come to order.

Mr. Willson and Mr. Ward.

TESTIMONY OF C. H. WILLSON, REGIONAL DIRECTOR, FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION, DENVER, COLO., AND CAL A. WARD, REGIONAL DIRECTOR, FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION, LINCOLN, NEBR.

Mr. Curtis. Mr. Ward, you give your full name and your title to the reporter, please.

Mr. Ward. Cal A. Ward, regional director, Farm Security Administration at Lincoln.

Mr. Curtis. Regional director; what is your territory?

Mr. Ward. Kansas, Nebraska, North and South Dakota, except 25 counties in Kansas.

Mr. Curtis. And Mr. Willson, your full name and title.

Mr. Willson. C. H. Willson, regional director, Farm Security Administration at Denver, for Montana, Wyoming, and Colorado, with the exception of a few Dust Bowl counties down at the southeast corner.

Mr. CURTIS. You gentlemen have prepared written statements which cover your work, which are received for the record and will be made a part of it.

(The statements referred to are as follows:)

STATEMENT BY CAL A. WARD, DIRECTOR, REGION VII, FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION, LINCOLN, NEBR.

READJUSTMENT AND REHABILITATION VERSUS MIGRATION

The rehabilitation program of the Farm Security Administration is one of self-help for the hard-up farmer. He helps himself through planning and wise use of credit which is extended by the Government after all other sources of credit have failed him.

It is not a relief program, and it is not charity. It improves the American farm family's chance to remain on the farm in spite of adverse circumstances of the past several years. It gives the hard-hit farm family a chance at an acceptable living standard, and improves tenure prospects.

It can hardly be said that a farmer has attained the rehabilitation of his family unless he achieves a substantial anchorage to the land to which he is suited. The stability of agriculture (on which the stability of the Nation largely depends) is threatened by the insecurity of a large number of farm families. In the Nation some 42 percent of the farmers do not own a square foot of land. Thousands of these families must move each year, in each State. Moves are costly and contribute directly to economic insecurity.

Frequent changes from one farm to another, even in the same neighborhood, are bad for the farmers. They are also bad for the land. A farm with three different farmers on it in five years, each abusing the soil to get as much as possible out of it, will lose its productivity. If one farmer could be assured of tenure for that 5-year period, he could plan to conserve the soil and the facilities, and plan his own livelihood at the same time.

One aim of the Farm Security Administration is to help this shifting farm population fasten its roots in the soil. The specific problems differ in various regions. We are concerned most directly with problems in North and South Dakota, Nebraska, and all of Kansas except 25 western and southwestern counties.

Many distressed farmers have approached the county offices of Farm Security under the vague impression that here was just another lending agency where they could possibly float one more loan. But they learned the emphasis is on self-rehabilitation possibilities. They have readily fallen in line with the idea of planning for security. They have learned that the money represented in the loan was simply the necessary financing to put sound plans into effect, and that plans and loans are based on the probability of orderly repayment in line with income from the farms The income in each instance has been figured in accordance with a farm and home management plan worked out with or by the farm family.

This plan is designed to afford self-sufficiency through home production of living needs, use of power produced on the farm, utilization of family labor, and production and maintenance of livestock feed reserves. Home production of 75 percent of family living requirements is accepted as a goal. Normal participation in community life is kept in mind.

Family requirements for food, clothing, household operation, personal expenses, medical care, housing improvements, furniture, and so on, necessary to family health and comfort, are considered living requirements. County home management supervisors advise with the families in these matters and help the family get started keeping farm and home records.

One rehabilitation aim is the sale of livestock products, such as cream, butter, eggs, and poultry, to meet family cash requirements. The plan gives important consideration to selection of animal units to produce the needed income through sale of products.

Sale of surplus livestock and livestock increases is figured to pay farm operating costs and to retire indebtedness. Too much dependence on cash-crop income is discouraged. Encouragement is given to diversification, including development of balanced livestock enterprises suited to the farm and farmer.

Gross income is figured as closely as it can be, and from that is deducted family living costs, operating expenses, and costs of capital goods to be purchased. The remainder is estimated as available for repayment of the Farm Security Administration loan and other indebtedness. Repayments are scheduled for the length of the loan period.

Development of the plan reveals the debt-paying power of the farmer, and it is in this connection that the county supervisor and the local farm-debt adjustment committee seek arrangements between debtor and creditors to permit the plan to be carried through.

The rehabilitation program must fit each locality. Flexibility and local fitness is enhanced by the county rehabilitation advisory committee as well as by the local farm-debt adjustment committee and, in tenant-purchase counties, the local T. P. committee. For instance, the rehabilitation advisory committee assists in passing on borrower eligibility, interprets rehabilitation needs, and assists with problem cases.

County and home management supervisors visit borrowers' homes to assist with farm problems and to offer counsel in better farm and home management practices. The record book kept by each borrower family reflects farm and home activities for the year. The record, showing costs and income, is summarized at the close of each year and forms the basis for the ensuing year's plan.

Farm Security Administration must accept the individual problem of each family as it exists and must help plan on the basis of whatever acreage the farmer has available or can obtain through the agency's help. In many instances this means intensification practices in order to get the most returns possible from what they have to work with and in line with good soil practices. In this connection attention is given to soil-conservation practices and to adaptable water facilities.

Grants are made to needy farm families for subsistence needs pending possible rehabilitation loans and to supplement income for subsistence needs of rehabilitation borrowers while productive units provided for in the plans are brought into production.

Several instrumentalities or tools are used by the Farm Security Administration to accomplish results. These include farm-debt adjustment, cooperative services, water-facility loans, resettlement projects, tenant-purchase loans, leasing associations, and tenure improvement. Each tool will be discussed briefly.

FARM-DEBT ADJUSTMENT

The function of farm-debt adjustment is to secure an understanding between debt-burdened farmers and their creditors, of the farm enterprise, its productive paying ability, and the adjustment of the farm indebtedness accordingly. It is expected that each debtor shall meet his obligations to the full limit of his ability to pay.

The preparation of a realistic farm plan, incorporating the facilities available from the several "tools of rehabilitation" that are applicable and predicated upon the best farm and home management practices, is a logical basis for determining the productive paying ability of the farm.

Farm debt adjustment committees, who serve without pay, but are partially reimbursed for out-of-pocket expense money, have been selected, organized, and instructed in the essentials of farm planning in this region. These committees work out the necessary debt adjustments with rehabilitation borrowers and their creditors upon the basis of plans prepared in the usual course of rehabilitation procedure. They also assist debt-burdened farmers and their creditors in working out a plan of operation to be used as a basis of adjustment, in cases not requiring a rehabilitation loan.

Farm debt adjustment committees have no legal power, nor do they pass upon the equities between farm debtors and their creditors. They secure results because of their ability to analyze the farm situation so clearly that farm debtors and their creditors are willing to act to their mutual advantage. In this manner farms are saved from foreclosure, and the tenure of people to the land is made more secure.

Since September 1, 1935, 19,975 farmers have received farm debt adjustment services in region VII; 12,255 of these cases were rehabilitation borrowers, and

7,720 were adjusted without the necessity of making a rehabilitation loan. An original indebtedness of $70,453,481, representing frozen farm credits, has been revived and is being paid in the sum of $46,047,886 by these farmers. A debt reduction in the sum of $24,405,595 was secured as necessary in working out the adjustment of these farm cases; 6,768,034 acres of land were involved in these adjustments, and taxes paid to county treasurers in the sum of $1,321,423.

COOPERATIVE SERVICES

Due to the long-continued drought, increasing debt burden, and low prices, which are the conditions contributing to the low income of farm families, their plight has reached the point where individual planning will not suffice to anchor them to the land and prevent farm migration.

The use of cooperatives in bringing about higher incomes and more efficient operations is an important factor. The field is unlimited. A group of two or more farmers can go together and acquire good sires to increase their standards of livestock, whereas on an individual basis the cost would be prohibitive. This is also true in the use of machinery, where such machinery is necessary.

Due to the high cost of such equipment and the short time it is used each year, the initial cost and the rate of depreciation is too high. Where two or more farmers go together and acquire such equipment on a group basis the initial cost and the rate of depreciation may be reduced to as much as 75 percent.

This is also true in cooperative associations made up of farmer members to handle farm products and commodities that will be consumed by the farmer. In this type of organization there are usually two classes of benefits—the tangible and the intangible.

A tangible benefit results when savings accrue to the association through its business of purchasing or selling for its members and such savings are prorated back to the members on a patronage basis. Thus, through his cooperative, the farmer has his buying and selling handled on a cost basis.

The intangible benefits derived from the use of such cooperative associations are reflected in the difference in prices received or costs incurred because an organization of farmer members exists in a community. Almost invariably, prices for farm products are higher in a community served by a cooperative association than in communities not so served. Likewise, purchasing costs are lower in communities served by consumers' cooperatives than in other communities. These benefits cannot be measured in exact dollars and cents.

This intangible benefit accrues to all farmers, association members or not, in communities served by cooperative associations.

WATER FACILITIES

The water-facilities program of the Department of Agriculture is the joint responsibility of three agencies of the Department. The Bureau of Agricultural Economics is responsible for the preparation of a general over-all plan for areas selected which embody the best possible land and water use. The Soil Conservation Service is the operating agency directly charged with the responsibility of the program. It furnishes technical assistance such as soil analysis and engineering services to participants. The Soil Conservation Service also prepares an individual plan of conservation operations for each participant. The Farm Security Administration is the lending agency when loans are necessary and is responsible for development of farm- and home-management plans by the applicants' families, for servicing and collecting the loan, and for general supervision to insure proper carrying out of the plan of conservation operations and the farm and home-management plan.

Loans can be made for almost all types of water facilities which will promote better land use, including livestock wells, pumps, dams for livestock water or irrigation, diversified projects, and other types of irrigation facilities where the same conform with the area plans.

Three of the chief contributing factors to the migration of farm families are: (1) Inability to produce feed crops in drought areas, (2) units of inadequate size for dry-land farming methods, and (3) unsatisfactory or short-term tenure.

By installing irrigation facilities where feasible to increase crop production, the first two factors mentioned above can often be entirely eliminated. Before a loan can be made to either a land owner or tenant, tenure for a period of years sufficient to enable the operator to realize on his investment in the facility must be assured. At present leases extending for as many as 15 years have been obtained for tenants who are installing facilities.

Another factor which probably more than all others contributes to the migration of farmers is the general discouragement experienced when for year after year they see their crops burn up for lack of moisture and are unable to obtain acceptable standards of living from the land. Under such conditions, the future appears to offer nothing but further discouragement and increased poverty.

The attitude of many farmers toward farming as a way of life has changed almost beyond belief since the installation of their water facilities. Instead of facing the future with a listless defeatism they are now alertly operating their units with a reasonable assurance of economic security and better living conditions.

TENANT PURCHASE LOANS

People do not change location primarily from a desire merely to change their place of residence. We are of the opinion that changing the residence is due to one of the following general reasons:

I. A desire to improve the standard of living:
   - (*a*) Better facilities for deriving income.
   - (*b*) Better building and conveniences.
   - (*c*) Better community and social surroundings.
   - (*d*) Increasing undesirable factors of rental.
   - (*e*) Probable increased security of tenure.

II. Forced to move from present location:
   - (*a*) Change of ownership.
   - (*b*) Increasing deterioration of buildings not maintained or kept in habitable condition by landlord.
   - (*c*) Impossible increases in rental charges (often due to competition of tractor operators).
   - (*d*) Operation of farm by owner, either by himself or hired labor or hired equipment with operator. Many owners have dispossessed tenant operators and employed custom equipment in order to obtain the full benefits of Agricultural Adjustment Administration and other payments.

All of this is evident in region VII. All of this contributes to the problem in point. Repeated moving is costly to farmers in several respects. The actual cash cost of moving is the lesser part of the total in most cases. Having to adjust the operation of the new farm, including grasslands, to fit the equipment and livestock of the mover and the adjustment of his stock and equipment to the new farm, presents a noncash cost which is usually very material.

The net result is, as has so often been stated, that repeated moving costs money which, in turn, reduces the farmer's net worth and reduces his ability to maintain satisfactory facilities with which to operate a farm. Unsatisfactory facilities owned by the tenant impairs his chances of renting desirable farms. Hence, his choice of farms is limited and the farm family usually moves from poorer farm to poorer farm.

The pressure of people for land causes competition in bidding for farms to operate. Increasing rentals have been marked and constant. Money or products paid as rent cannot increase the tenant's net worth. Thus, the tenant family becomes less and less able to purchase a farm under the terms usually required. All this has materially contributed to the growing tenancy and insecurity of tenure.

The first 486 tenant-purchase loans made in region VII presented some interesting facts in respect to the status of the operators of the farms purchased and also in respect to the ownership of such farms. Eighty-six of the farms purchased were being operated by the seller. One hundred sixty-nine were being operated by the tenant-purchase borrower and 231 were operated by a third-party tenant.

In respect to the 86 farms purchased from people who were then operating the farms, some were retiring, some were being foreclosed. We have not made a break-down as to these points, but do recall that these two factors were prominent. Some of these sellers, no doubt, became tenant farmers.

The 231 third-party tenants, who were forced to move due to the farms being purchased, present a situation which could be studied to advantage. Some of these, no doubt, would have to move to poorer farms for reasons heretofore given. We do know that some of them made application for a tenant-purchase loan, but, for various reasons, were not approved.

Since all of the 486 borrowers were tenant farmers, it may appear that more than 169 of them should have purchased the farms they were operating. It is certainly not true that less than this number were offered for sale. In some cases the farms being operated were not considered good family-type economic units. In some cases, the borrower was purchasing a farm formerly owned by him or some member of his family, and, in other cases, because the borrower was seeking a better farm such as he would want to own and operate so long as he lived.

We believe that a study of this phase of the question could well be made in all regions or at least sufficiently so to obtain a good cross-section analysis of the extent to which the tenant-purchase loan program affords information for constructive study.

In any event, the tenant-purchase loan program is making a start toward stabilizing tenure and our opinion is that the greatest value of the work which will be done under the Bankhead-Jones Farm Tenant Act will be that of demonstration. This demonstration will be in the way of showing that a 100 percent loan can be a sound loan, providing the value of the farm is arrived at in a sound manner.

Just so long as speculative value or any value other than the actual production value or debt-paying capacity of the farm is used, we will fail to provide security of tenure.

Insurance companies, mortgage companies, and other holders of farm property may personally profit by selling land at more than its debt-paying capacity, either by obtaining substantial down payments or by requiring payments of portions of farm income in excess of that considered equitably as rent. In any event, such prices of land will eventually result in termination of the contract and will mean that during such time as the contract was in force, that the so-called purchaser and his family are penalized.

RESETTLEMENT PROJECTS

Resettlement projects as administered by the Farm Security Administration are of two general types, the community or concentrated type known as farmsteads, and the scattered farms or infiltration type.

In the region are 10 farmstead projects. Eight are in Nebraska at these general locations: Two Rivers, or about 20 miles west of Omaha; Scottsbluff; Fairbury; Loup City; Kearney; Grand Island; Falls City, and South Sioux City. One is at Sioux Falls, S. Dak., and one at Burlington, N. Dak. Total acreage is approximately 7,500 acres, and homes are available for 108 families. Burlington project has largest area, with 2,175 acres and 35 units. Two Rivers is next largest, with 1,570 acres and 40 units. Much of the acreage is farmed on a cooperative basis.

All community-type projects were originated by the Emergency Relief Administration, prior to establishment of the Resettlement Administration in the summer of 1935. They were subsequently taken over by the Resettlement Administration.

The region has 3 principal infiltration projects, all well to the eastern edge of the region. One is in northeastern Kansas, with 19 units on 1,738 acres, one in eastern South Dakota with 31 units and 5,988 acres, and one in eastern North Dakota in the Red River Valley with 104 farms on 28,199 acres. A few others, which will be smaller, are under way or will be developed along with the reclamation program. The infiltration projects all were originated by the Resettlement Administration in 1935.

Intention of Emergency Relief Administration was to afford homes and small acreages for low-income families who might find employment or part-time employment in industry and supplement their earnings with farm produce. Construction and improvement work was done largely with relief labor. It was difficult to determine exactly how much to assign to normal improvement costs and how much to charge to relief. At any rate, much relief employment was furnished to families who otherwise would have been direct relief burdens.

Resettlement Administration, working with Land Use in establishing the infiltration projects, had in mind providing fertile farms for those families who sold their lands in dust-bowl areas to the Government for reclamation or other purposes. Comparatively few families were content to move east out of the arid areas. Most of them seemed determined to go on west. The farms owned by the Government in infiltration projects were available to them on a rental basis, to be followed by a basis of ownership subject to a lease and purchase contract covering 40 years at 3 percent interest.

Many of the occupants on infiltration farms, which are family-size units with reasonably good improvements, are farm families coming from the same general portions of the States in which the farms are located, or who came from counties not far removed. In nearly every instance, however, the family was placed in position to improve its economic opportunities, and perhaps escaped wandering westward into unknown territory and circumstances. Certainly some of them escaped urban relief rolls toward which they soon would have been headed.

Introduction of the tenant purchase-loan program, set in motion by the Bankhead-Jones Act, diverted attention from resettlement projects. Undoubtedly work done in development of infiltration projects afforded valuable guide posts in working out the tenant-purchase program.

TENURE IMPROVEMENT AND LEASING ASSOCIATIONS

Since the tenure-improvement and leasing-association program is designed to assist needy farm families, such assistance can be given only when the family has a desirable farm on which to plan the year's activities.

This is an action program, but it is recognized that these families are in their present position through a combination of adversities. We therefore attempt first to establish these families on a self-sufficient basis; and self-sufficiency means, among other things, the production of meat, livestock products, and vegetables. It is therefore necessary to set up an equitable working relationship with the landlord in order that sufficient acreage may be used for the production of garden products and livestock feed; also, for building and other improvements to provide for the health of the family and housing for the livestock.

The landlord is advised of the long-time plan and his cooperation is solicited on the grounds that he can assist in the rehabilitation of a local needy farm family. He is advised that since this is a program of immediate aid to the family with the thought of yearly development in future years, it will make his farm more desirable and worth more per year to him just as it will be worth more to the family that operates it.

There is a certain something that ties a family to a farm if they can point to some one thing they have accomplished in one year or in several years on their farm. Improvement either of soil or facilities also indicates to the landlord the sincerity on the part of the borrower who rents his land.

The past 10 years have no doubt taken more from the farm than from the farm family, and it is acknowledged that both must stage a mutual comeback. In the past very little consideration has been given the soil and plant life, and water resources in this area. The Soil Conservation Service and the Bureau of Agricultural Economics have made exhaustive surveys and have developed equipment and techniques for holding and restoring the soil, conserving the water and restoring plant life. Many farms have had little possibility of returning income to the owner over a 5-year period; yet the farm might be developed into a feasible investment if occupied by the right family, equipped with proper facilities, and operated under a plan of water and soil conservation.

Credit extended by the Farm Security Administration on a fairly productive farm where only reasonable practices are necessary is repayable on a 5-year basis; but in other cases where, due to condition of land and plant life it is conceded that it will take several years before any benefits will accrue to the operator because of the drastic changes which are necessary in the land use, the repayment period may be extended up to 10 years. The application of soil and water conservation on a unit may make it necessary to decrease or enlarge the size of the unit in order that a farm family can operate without outside labor.

During the transition period since the war, from a live-at-home, self-sufficient enterprise to the cash-cropping mechanized enterprise, a gradual shift away from community responsibility took place. This, combined with development of highways and motor transportation, lessened the interdependence of individuals in a community or communities within a county. Since more effort is being made at this time to utilize tax-free land for community recreational centers, combined with the efforts of the Farm Security Administration in holding group meetings and forming local associations of Farm Security Administration borrowers, more interest is being developed by the individuals in remaining in place. Instead of farmers operating as individuals on a county basis they are again going back to a community basis which indirectly tends to lessen relocation to new communities where they again must reestablish themselves.

It is contemplated that a number of leasing associations will be established on a township or larger basis. The purpose of such associations is to lease available land which may be subleased to operators, present and new, so that farm families may be established on family-type units.

Through recommendtions of Land Use, Soil Conservation, and local governing agencies, the association in leasing all of the land may find that a reorganization of present operators' units may be brought about to establish new operators on family-type units. To a certain degree that would stop that number of farm families from moving to other areas.

Tenure for the area would be stabilized by the fact that consideration had been given to family type units; and by the fact that the association would sublease the land equitably on a basis of its inherent productivity as well as productivity developed over a period of years.

Competitive bidding among renters would be eliminated. Many local, State, and Federal agencies would take land off the market for a period up to 10 years. In other words, it is thought a pattern can be developed to establish tenure for a certain number of farm families carrying on a type of agriculture basically sound for the area for at least 10 years.

If this pattern can be developed on a county or State basis a family should have no desire to move to other localities unless that family belongs to the small group of those who are, by nature, moving farmers.

Development of a unit should be the result of careful study. The unit should fit the particular needs of a particular family. The family should be provided with facilities fitted to the area and should be enabled to envision a definite pattern of operations for future years. They should be situated so as to feel a real responsibility for the community and to feel that they are a vital part of it. A family so situated and established will feel little or no desire to move into new areas.

Information from the field indicates that this is the thinking of the present, more substantial operators.

MIGRATION OF FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION CLIENTS

A survey has been made and preliminary notes prepared by A. H. Anderson, Division of Farm Population, Northern Great Plains Region, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, relative to the migration of Farm Security Administration clients. Inasmuch as these notes supplement ideas advanced in the foregoing statements, we desire to submit them along with the statements.

Investigation of the mobility of standard and emergency Farm Security Administration loan clients during the period April 1937 to August 1940 reveals considerable out-migration. Records of case loads and movements in 40 counties of North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, and Kansas show that 18.5 percent of the average number of standard clients moved, and 14 percent of the emergency clients moved during this period. Movement within the county of residence is not included in this survey. The counties studied made up Farm Security Administration districts—one in each State of the region. These districts are located in the western half of each State and west of the hundredth meridian.[1] Inmigration of Farm Security Administration clients to these counties only partially offset the movement out of the counties. Standard clients equal to 5 percent of the average case load and emergency clients equal to 3.5 percent of the average case load came into the counties surveyed.

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[1] North Dakota, district I; South Dakota, district III; Nebraska, district I; and Kansas, district VI.

A quick tabulation of destination of Farm Security Administration clients, both standard and emergency, who moved out of the 40 counties, shows 38.3 percent moving to other States. Of these 444 clients, who moved out of the State, about 38 percent migrated to States west of the Rocky Mountains and 55 percent went to States bordering on 1 of the 4 states in the region. This indicates a greater tendency for Farm Security Administration clients to move to adjoining States as compared to out-movement of the general farm population as indicated by sample surveys in Montana, North Dakota, and South Dakota. Clients who moved to other counties within the State of residence numbered 714. About 58 percent of these moved to an adjoining county within the State.

The extensive out-migration is associated with agricultural distress induced by a protracted drought cycle and adverse economic conditions. The wide spread between out-migration and in-migration indicates increasing pressure on land resources.

The program of the Farm Security Administration is designed to aid distressed farm operators to maintain themselves in place. As a high percentage of the standard loan clients are tenants, with less secure tenure than owners, considerable mobility still obtains in spite of the guidance and financial assistance extended to them. A large number of operators, with more secure tenure, are assisted with emergency loans. These clients, because of greater average resources, do not move as much as the standard clients. About 1 in 7 emergency clients moved from his county of residence and nearly 1 in 5 of the standard clients.

Destination of Farm Security Administration clients[1] moving out, by selected area, 1937–40[2]

Destination	Number of out-migrants, 1937–40				
	All areas	North Dakota, district No. 1	South Dakota, district No. 3	Nebraska, district No. 1	Kansas, district No. 6
Total moving out	1,158	334	394	164	266
Same State	714	187	247	117	163
Adjoining county	418	115	121	87	95
Other county in State	296	72	126	30	68
Other States	444	147	147	47	103
Washington	85	50	28	1	6
Minnesota	59	36	23	---	---
Montana	38	25	12	1	---
Nebraska	37	2	8	---	27
Colorado	36	---	3	6	27
Oregon	33	10	16	2	5
Idaho	27	10	5	2	10
North Dakota	23	---	23	---	---
California	20	5	5	3	7
Wyoming	17	---	2	13	2
South Dakota	13	2	---	9	2
Missouri	11	---	---	3	8
Iowa	10	2	5	---	3
Wisconsin	9	2	6	1	---
Illinois	5	1	3	---	1
Kansas	4	---	2	2	---
Indiana	4	1	3	---	---
Michigan	3	1	1	---	1
Texas	2	---	---	1	1
Oklahoma	2	---	---	1	1
Arizona	2	---	---	1	1
Arkansas	2	---	1	---	1
Florida	1	---	---	1	---
Utah	1	---	1	---	---

[1] Includes both standard and emergency clients.
[2] Includes period from April 1937 to August 1940.

Relationship of out-movement[1] of Farm Security Administration clients to number of Farm Security Administration clients, by type of assistance, 1937–40[2]

Area: State and Farm Security Administration district	Standard clients			Emergency clients		
	Average number of clients	Number clients moving	Percent clients moving	Average number of clients	Number clients moving	Percent clients moving
Total all area	3,797	703	18.51	6,900	966	14.0
North Dakota, district No. 1	1,124	127	11.29	3,918	333	8.49
South Dakota, district No. 3	333	39	11.71	1,933	475	24.57
Nebraska, district No. 1	908	290	31.93	161	19	11.80
Kansas, district No. 6	1,432	247	17.24	888	139	15.65

[1] Moves beyond same county only.
[2] Period covered, April 1937 to August 1940.

STATEMENT BY C. H. WILLSON, REGIONAL DIRECTOR, FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION, REGION X, DENVER, COLO.

Settlement of Migratory and Stranded Farm Families in the Great Plains

About 350,000 families have left the Great Plains since 1930—some in a dilapidated truck containing a few movable belongings, some in an old car with only what few clothes they may have had. All left with an empty pocketbook and despair in their hearts. Nearly all headed westward, looking for greener pastures and an opportunity to become self-reliant and self-respecting citizens in a new environment, where nature might be less harsh. Some are now eking out a bare existence on a piece of cut-over timberland, while others are still wandering around looking for a home and in many cases thinking about the possibility of returning to the Plains. All have their roots in the soil and ask only an opportunity to take their place in the social and economic life of the Nation.

The Farm Security Administration in region 10, which embraces Montana, Wyoming, and part of Colorado, has had in operation a well-integrated program of rehabilitation for low-income farm families. Most of these farmers can make a living in this area if the agricultural resources are fully developed and utilized and if there is worked out a better relationship between land and people. Adequate financing and guidance in good management and farming practices are, of course, also necessary.

Any program of rehabilitation in the Great Plains, however, is seriously hampered by climatic difficulties. During the past decade, this area has experienced a severe and prolonged drought. A study of available records tends to show that a highly fluctuating rainfall is normal expectancy. So far, we generally have treated the present drought as an emergency and have designed some of our farm programs in the Great Plains on a temporary emergency basis, with the idea that the problems would be solved with the return of better moisture conditions.

It is becoming evident, however, that the present drought is not our only farm problem in the Plains and, moreover, that we can expect similar periods of adequate and deficient moisture in the future. The present drought has merely served to emphasize conditions which are basic and extremely grave, the solution of which lies in a major readjustment between the farm population and the land and water resources.

Thousands of farm families have been forced to leave their homes in the Plains to seek their fortunes elsewhere. Other thousands are still trying to eke out a meager existence, with such public assistance as is available, on poor and often inadequate sized units, because they have neither the means nor the courage to go elsewhere. Most of these remaining low-income families whom we think of as being stranded in the Plains are actually migratory in a broad sense because, being tenants, they are subject to the pressure of landlords and financing agencies, and are drifting around from farm to farm and from community to community. Except for certain mitigating tax-delinquency legislation passed in recent years and direct public assistance, the number of such families who are migrating within the Plains would be increased manyfold.

The majority of these families are capable of successful operations and financial independence if proper adjustments are made in size of unit and in land and water use. They have, however, exhausted their entire resources during the present drought period, including also the land, and are now exhausting their lives in an economy which is not capable of providing food, shelter, and health. They are social and economic derelicts—good American stock, but victims of a set of circumstances over which they have had little or no control. I hope, therefore, that this committee will consider the plight of these remaining stranded farmers in the Great Plains as analogous to that of the so-called migratory farmers, since the same circumstances and causes and the same cures apply to both.

In the winter of 1938, we conducted a survey in Colorado, Wyoming, and Montana to determine the probable number of farm families who could not make a decent living on the farms then occupied. The estimate was 7,466 for Montana, 2,706 for Colorado, excluding the 14 Dust Bowl counties which are administered through another Farm Security region, and 2,432 for Wyoming. This total of 12,604 families is 11 percent of all the families engaged in agriculture in these 3 States, excluding the 14 Colorado counties. We have made no survey of migratory farm families in the 3 States. However, the Montana State Planning Board estimates about 9,000 migrant families in Montana alone.

I should like to emphasize that for purposes of this statement, we are not considering the families ordinarily termed as "migratory workers." I am confining my remarks to families who are, or normally should be, engaged in full-time farming, either as tenants or owners. The suggested solutions, however, also can provide opportunities for a large number of the migratory-worker families.

In 1939, the Government initiated a special program for developing water and land resources in the arid and semiarid parts of the United States, through an appropriation to the President for water conservation and utilization projects. By direction of the President, the Bureau of Reclamation, the Department of Agriculture, the Work Projects Administration, and the Civilian Conservation Corps are cooperating in the development of these projects. The essential points in the program, now in operation, were outlined by the Northern Great Plains Committee in its report to the National Resources Committee under date of October 14, 1938. In this report, the following recommendations were made:

(1) "That relief funds be expended so far as practicable and needed for irrigation projects which would reduce the relief load by furnishing a reliable means of livelihood and would serve as effective units in a proper system of land and water utilization."

(2) "That expenditures for projects, over and above the reimbursable portions, be limited by the amounts currently necessary for relief, preferential consideration being given to projects in areas where the greatest amount of relief would be provided."

(3) "That detailed planning of the developmental program be undertaken cooperatively by the various Federal agencies which will participate in construction, settlement, guidance of settlers, and the like, including the Northern Plains Agricultural Advisory Council of the Department of Agriculture and the land-grant colleges, by the planning boards and other appropriate agencies and authorities of the several States of the Northern Plains region, and by local planning agencies, and that the over-all planning program be coordinated by the National Resources Committee."

(4) "That particular projects be constructed by the Federal agency or agencies best adapted to the work involved, provided, however, that the engineering plans for all relatively large projects be subject to approval by the Bureau of Reclamation and that plans for all projects be subject to certification by the Department of Agriculture with respect to their agricultural soundness and their conformity with an appropriate land-use plan."

(5) "That responsibility for the administration of projects upon completion shall rest with the Department of Agriculture, and that settlers on the projects be required to repay to the Department of Agriculture the operation, maintenance, construction, land, and other charges to the extent of their ability as determined jointly by the Bureau of Reclamation and the Department of Agriculture in the

light of the productive capacity and utility of the land, the conditions existing on other projects, and other relevant considerations."

(6) "That the Department of Agriculture assume responsibility for locating on the projects persons in need of resettlement; for buying, reselling, subleasing, and leasing land in order to facilitate construction and settlement (if presently so empowered); for collecting all repayments; and for guiding or advising the settlers in matters of farm practice."

The program now under way includes projects in Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, and Wyoming. The total irrigable acreage involved is about 78,000 acres, most of which has not been irrigated in the past. It is estimated that there will be a total of approximately 800 farms created through this development. The benefits of this program are much more far reaching, however. It is anticipated that about an equal number of farmers in the dry-land area will become rehabilitated and stabilized through acquiring the lands vacated by the families who will be moved to an irrigated farm. In addition, a large number of dry-land operators will be stabilized in place through securing a small acreage of irrigated land for feed base.

In other words, even a relatively small irrigation project can in this manner take care of and stabilize the operations of a considerable number of dry-land farmers who are or later may be in the migrant category. Where operating units now are too small, the removal of some families to irrigated land makes possible the addition of sufficient acreage to remaining farms to permit a sound organization. If a small feed base can be provided for farms now relying on dry-land operations alone, periodic droughts will not necessitate the disposal of foundation livestock and thereby cause financial upset of the farm enterprise as well as market demoralization.

The land policies of the past resulted in the settlement of vast areas which never should have been farmed, and in the allocation in other areas of insufficient land per farm to provide for a family. The present land ownership pattern in most of the Plains shows a large number of these substandard units, generally occupied by families who are in financial distress and moving about from farm to farm as circumstances dictate. If the poorer units could be abandoned through resettlement of the occupants and the vacated lands combined into grazing districts or with inadequate dry-farm units, an entire area can become stabilized and productive.

A program such as outlined above necessitates the purchase by the Government of all or a considerable portion of the land to be irrigated. Purchase of some submarginal dry-farm land and grazing land also is desirable. It is essential that this water development be looked upon and handled as an area program in order to permit maximum benefits and adjustments from the limited water supply available in most areas. Where construction costs are relatively high, the use of nonreimbursable funds through Work Projects Administration or Civilian Conservation Corps participation makes development feasible in a great number of areas in the Plains.

As indicated elsewhere in this report, many thousands of families have abandoned farms in the Great Plains and have migrated to the towns or to areas of greater rainfall in their own or other States, and the result has usually been a heightening of their own distress and an intolerable burden upon the economy and relief facilities of the communities to which they move. To Flathead County, Mont. (in a cut-over area incapable of providing a good living for the families already there), 700 families migrated between 1932 and 1938 to eke out a miserable existence on small tracts of often barren soil. Most of these families came from the Plains. Every western county in Montana has had a similar but varying influx of migrant families and this experience is, of course, multiplied in the Northwest and Pacific coast communities generally. If the water utilization and conservation program had been in operation during this period, much of this migration might have been avoided. Reference to exhibit 4, attached, indicates some of the opportunities for this type of solution in Montana. A similar list of developments could be supplied for the other States in the Plains area.

The entire problem cannot be solved by an adjustment program such as I have discussed but our studies indicate that probably all of the stranded and migratory families in Colorado, Montana, and Wyoming can be economically reestablished within the boundaries of these States, if the water and land resources were fully developed and all reclaimed land used for the benefit of stranded families. Our experience, therefore, leads me to urge the continuation and enlargement of a program such as outlined above, as at least a partial solution to the migratory farm family problem.

There are attached the following exhibits and supplementary material in support of this statement:

1. A report on resettlement in region X by Jos. H. Smart, assistant regional director in charge of resettlement, dated February 4, 1938.
2. A letter from myself to Mr. E. A. Starch, coordinator, Northern Great Plains, United States Department of Agriculture, under date of October 31, 1939, prepared by Dr. P. L. Slagsvold, senior agricultural economist, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, and head of our area planning section for the water conservation and utilization program.
3. An article on land-use adjustment in the Northern Great Plains issued by the Department of Agriculture in January 1940.
4. Excerpts from the report of the Montana State Planning Commission on migratory farm families showing the potential resettlement possibilities in Montana by the development of all irrigation resources.
5. A report of the Milk River Northern Montana Land Utilization Project and the Farm Security Resettlement project by Project Manager H. L. Lantz. dated April 1. 1940.

FEBRUARY 4, 1939.

From: C. H. Willson, regional director.
To: Jos. H. Smart, assistant regional director.
Subject: Resettlement in region 10.

The attached report of resettlement in region 10 is the result of the questionnaire survey conducted last fall through rehabilitation supervisors in Colorado, Montana, and Wyoming.

It shows relocation accomplished or under way to date, the need for additional relocation in the region, and potential relocation opportunities. A section is also included which indicates the trend of migration during the past 6 years.

I desire to express appreciation for the assistance of Mr. M. O. Anderson, regional chief of family selection, in supervising the survey and in the preparation of the report and exhibits.

RESETTLEMENT IN REGION 10

Farmers without farms.—Twelve thousand six hundred and four farm families in region 10 are in need of relocation; 7,466 of them live in Montana, 2,706 live in Colorado,[1] and 2,432 live in Wyoming.

These figures are estimates, but they are compiled from survey questionnaires sent in by the man in each county best qualified to know the distressed families—the rehabilitation supervisor. The supervisors were asked to check their estimates with county planning commissions, county officials, extension agents, and others familiar with local farms and families. The survey was made in October and November 1938.

The 12,604 families are on farms now; the thousands of others who quit and went into town or joined the caravans of migratory workers are not included. These families are victims of drought, in areas where drought is a normal condition; or of farming too poor or too few acres to provide decent living; or of shortage of irrigation water. Most of them for years have been, are, and in their present location always will be, periodically on relief. They pay few, if any, taxes, and their more fortunately located neighbors pay to maintain roads, schools, and public-health facilities, if any, for them. But they are rehabilitable—potentially good farmers. They are agricultural victims but they are not casualties—yet.

We have a misplaced population of 12,604 farm families in our three States who need help in finding new opportunities. They need expert guidance in selecting economic farms and a grubstake of operating capital to get started. They need homes, and education in management and better farming practices.

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[1] Not including the 14 "dust bowl" Colorado counties in Farm Security Administration, region 12.

Finding the land.—We are set up to finance the families and give them the needed guidance; but there are few good farms to rent without displacing good tenants. Last year relocation experts in each State spent months seeking farms to be leased by families on submarginal farms, but practically none were found.

Fortunately, however, there is still good land in the region—probably enough to accommodate all the misplaced families who desire and could be accepted for relocation aid. The county rehabilitation supervisors reported in their questionnaires that 10,751[2] good farms are potentially available along the streams and in the valleys of this region, without displacing present farmers; 6,199 of these are in Montana, 2,416 are in Colorado, and 2,136 are in Wyoming. Many more could no doubt be eventually developed which were not considered feasible under our program.

Here again we have an estimate, made by local persons and agencies, and probably almost as reliable as the one about the families. It points, partially at least, to the solution of our problem.

The Government should buy the idle lands, the estates of absentee owners and ranches of large acreage capable of supporting many families but now supporting few. It must reclaim the remaining flats and prairies, either private or public domain, which can be irrigated from the rivers. It must provide aid in damming up the creeks to facilitate the irrigation of many small farms, not used heretofore.

Some of the land, particularly individual farms, is under cultivation and ready for operation. Much of it, however, requires development of irrigation or drainage, erosion or weed control, clearing and leveling before it can be farmed properly. Such operations, with the erection of houses and farm structures, will provide work for many needy people.

What will it cost?—In the long view we should be glad to pay a big price to close up the rural slums, turn land now plowed and blown about back to useful, moisture-conserving range, and make healthy, useful, contributing citizens of farmers we once thought were perpetual reliefers. The Nation can well afford the investment in permanent human and natural resources. But the cash outlay will be repaid.

The average farm investment would be about $8,431, including land, irrigation, and drainage installation, land leveling and improvement, fencing, and buildings. This amount is considered a reasonable capitalization for sound farms in irrigated areas.

Under its present program the Farm Security Administration has under operation or development a total of 582 resettlement farms, many of them having farmed 1 or 2 years. Most of the families came from submarginal lands which had been withdrawn from use under the land-utilization program and were social and economic liabilities before they moved. They were given the sort of opportunity outlined above, their needs for land, improvements, and equipment being met on a realistic basis. Their pride is restored; they face the future with confidence. They are paying their way, amortizing their loans, some in advance of the repayment schedules, and they are building their own security as well as contributing to the securing of others in the new communities in which they live.

Migration of families.—The present study was not primarily concerned with causes but did include the examination of some symptoms of maladjustment which have a bearing upon the need for a relocation program. One of these symptoms is the migration of farm facilities, which we attempted to measure roughly, for the period 1932 to 1938 inclusive. Generally the arid portion of our three States is in the east and the sections of greater rainfall are in the west. There are, of course, large areas of choice dry-land farming in the eastern-plains section interspersed with the problem areas which predominate.

We have a large problem of stranded population on submarginal units in the dry-land areas, but the condition is equally acute in many of the western counties of plentiful rainfall, particularly in Montana and on the western slope in Colorado. During the great drought, hundreds of families migrated westward and squatted on small acreages of cut-over land in the timber country of Montana or on too small irrigated farms in other States. The need for relocation in all three States is, therefore, State-wide. Fortunately in most instances the desired adjustment between land and people can be made within the county or within the natural agricultural subdivision in which the people reside.

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[2] These were not all reported by the supervisors. The figures include some resettlement project proposals in the regional office not included in the questionnaires.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION,
Denver, Colo., October 31, 1939.

Subject: Land-use adjustment in the Great Plains.

Mr. E. A. STARCH,
Coordinator, Northern Great Plains,
United States Department of Agriculture, Lincoln, Nebr.

DEAR MR. STARCH: Pursuant to your telephone conversation of recent date with our office, we are sending you the information concerning Land-Use Adjustments in the Great Plains for which you asked, as prepared by Dr. P. L. Slagsvold. It is difficult to give much concrete material on accomplishments to date. The original contracts with settlers on the first projects called for a repayment schedule which was difficult for them to meet. You will recall that the first advances were due in 1 year, or before the farmers had a chance to get the land into a productive state. Under present contracts, these payments are spread over 5 or more years and generally the obligations are being met.

Grazing land needed in connection with water conservation and utilities program.—If the Great Plains program is to show maximum accomplishments, it is essential that it be based upon an area economy foundation. With all the difficulties in this territory in the past 20 years, it would be unsound procedure to develop any irrigation projects without this being made an integral part of the land-use adjustment in the area. This means not only giving eligible stranded dry-land farmers the first opportunity to settle on irrigated land, but also seeing to it that the dry land thus abandoned does not become a relief haven for a new family. It must be recognized that the farmer goes broke and not the farm, which stays there and invites the next innocent person to try his luck.

Hence, when one stranded farmer is given an opportunity elsewhere, his former unit should be used in a way which will provide maximum adjustment and stability for the area. In some locations this may mean using it to round out a unit for another dry-land farmer who cannot or should not migrate, or it may mean including it in a grazing district for joint use by dry land and irrigation farmers.

Where a dry-land area can be largely depopulated, the land made available should be tied to the feed base developed on the irrigation project. However, in more densely populated counties, as in parts of North and South Dakota, the land made vacant by a resettlement program may be put to equally good use as grazing supplement for remaining dry-land farmers. But in any case, the resettlement program should be accompanied by a land-purchase program, if the area adjustments are to be made effective. Without land purchase, less effective control can be exercised, and moving one farmer to irrigated land merely invites another to take over.

On the basis of an average carrying capacity of one animal unit for 30 acres, it may be estimated that 30 acres of grazing land should be purchased for every acre of irrigated land developed. If, for example, a farmer has 60 acres of irrigated land, he would need about 1,440 acres of grazing land to run 225 ewes, which, in turn, would permit him to fatten about 200 lambs (figuring a 90-percent lamb crop). Pasture for bucks, dry and young stock, and horses in off season would require an additional 200 acres. Counting fences, roads, stockwater reservoirs, it brings the figure up to about 1,800 acres, or about 30 acres of grazing land per acre of irrigated land.

The following estimates cover the grazing land requirements in connection with the Great Plains project now under consideration:

Project	Irrigated land	Grazing land required
	Acres	*Acres*
Buffalo Rapids No. 1, Mont	12,500	375,000
Buffalo Rapids No. 2, Mont	10,000	300,000
Buford-Trenton, N. Dak	13,400	402,000
Saco Divide, Mont	9,600	288,000
Mirage Flats, Nebr	8,000	240,000
Rapid Valley, S. Dak	6,000	180,000
Total	------------	1,785,000

As a general statement, the plan should be to purchase about 20 to 30 acres of range land—depending upon quality—for each acre of irrigated land developed, in order to provide maximum stabilization for both the dry and irrigated land.

Land purchase in connection with irrigation development—There are several reasons for buying land which is to be developed for irrigation:

1. Unless the land is under control, the risk in financing a settler is increased materially. Only bona fide farmers should undertake developing an irrigated farm.

2. Sound unit subdivision is possible only if a major portion of the land to be irrigated is under Government ownership.

3. The experience of past settlement on irrigation projects shows that it takes two to three generations of farmers to make a going concern of a piece of land. Raw land, which may also have to be cleared and brushed, requires a considerable investment and much slow and heavy labor by the individual farmer to get it to full productivity. One man with a team and fresno can clear and level but a small acreage each year. Since he has to meet water charges on his entire irrigable acreage, he generally is bankrupt before he gets more than a small portion of his land into full production. The next farmer who takes over can clear and level some more land, but unless he is well financed he also will fail within a short time.

Then there are buildings and fences to construct and a well to dig. Few farmers have the requisite capital or financial backing to handle such a load. The result is that a large percentage of the original settlers fail, they live under slum-area conditions, the creditors cannot collect, and the area as well as all irrigation developments get national condemnation.

The most expensive phase of community development is periodic bankruptcy of its establishments, including farms. This social loss and waste is not only costly but unnecessary. With careful analysis of the area to be developed for irrigation and a judicious selection of settlers, the project can be made a going concern from the beginning and the financial mortality rate held to a minimum.

It is true that even with the Government purchasing the land and developing the farm units, the farmer will not be out of debt and independent in a short while. But whatever progress he makes is credited to his future security, and the risk of failure is reduced to a minimum. Hence, the Government should purchase all land under irrigation development to insure the maximum possibility of success for the development.

It may be pertinent to add here a few quotations from a report on Federal reclamation projects, published by the Department of Interior in 1929. The author of the statements is Dr. Alvin Johnson, who was invited by Dr. Elwood Mead, late Commissioner of the Bureau of Reclamation, to prepare a report on the social and economic aspects of certain western reclamation projects:

"The Government brings the water to the land, but under present conditions the settler must grade the land to receive the water. This is an operation requiring much labor and time. Unless the land lies miraculously well, a number of years will elapse before a settler can prepare 80 acres to receive the water properly. Usually he grades a part the first year and cultivates it, leaving the bulk of his holding unproductive. Naturally, his income is very much smaller than that which he will enjoy when his holding is in full production. It may or may not fall below the existence level.

"Even when the land is all graded, some years must elapse before it is fit for the most profitable intensive culture. The soil lacks humus, and this defect can be remedied only by sowing to sweet clover, alfalfa, or some grain crop and gradually building up. One does see good stands of beets on new land, but this is the exception. For full returns the settler requires several years' time.

"From the outset the settler requires adequate horsepower, and he ought to have at least a good nucleus of a herd of cows and sheep. He needs machinery; he needs a house to live in and shelter for his livestock. He needs money enough to live on until the first paying crop is sold.

"These settlers in ____________________ are a gallant lot, and most of them will succeed in creating charming and prosperous homes. But what they have now, what the bounty of the Government has given them, is only a Chinaman's chance, in the phrase of one of the most distinguished citizens of Wyoming. They have a chance, by subjecting themselves and their wives and children to a Chinese standard of living through 4 or 5 years, to come into the birthright of ordinary American citizens, an American standard of living.

"The Government may be willing to wait and stand the loss of interest. Those who cannot well afford to wait on the slow process of settlement are the actual settlers on the projects. They are obligated as a community to meet the charges for operation and maintenance and on construction account. When only one-half the lands are settled, the obligations of the individual settler are twice as heavy as they would be in a fully settled community. This is the case today of the Lower Yellowstone. The settlers in the community say that they will be unable to live up to the present contract with the Government unless the additional settlers are brought in. The local officials of the Reclamation Service are bending effort to secure settlers, but without success.

"I am personally far from convinced that the Government can morally solicit settlement unless it is prepared to go much further than it now does in smoothing out the difficulties that beset the settler. American citizens ought not to be induced by the Government to sink their small capitals and years of effort in prospects with the chances heavily against them. Private land developers have done this, but the weight of public opinion is that they should be checked in such activities.

"Either the Government ought to refrain from soliciting settlement or it ought to create the conditions under which the settler has a fair chance of success. Of these conditions the provision of improvement loans is far the most vital."

"The best of the reclamation projects would do little more than pay out under an economic accounting which exacted from the settler full repayment of the construction costs together with interest. Their defense must run in terms of their social importance to the State and Nation. And this fact emphasizes the necessity of giving at least as much attention to the community building aspect of reclamation as to the engineering aspect. It may be worth while to spend public money lavishly in building an organic community of healthy, happy Americans, enjoying an American standard of living and exciting emulation in social organization among other rural communities. Merely to put water on the land to grow thousand-acre fields of sugar beets with migratory Mexican labor is not an object worth one dollar's subsidy. Such an enterprise should be viewed as cold bloodedly by the Government as any business proposition is by any good businessman.

"The times have changed, and the only significant objective for a reclamation policy today is community building. It is essentially a far more important objective than that of the earlier period. One who has seen what the older and more prosperous reclamation divisions have accomplished can easily conceive of the several projects as splendid cases of wholesome and prosperous rural life, contributing invaluable social benefits to their commonwealths. Reclamation is a policy immensely worth continuing, if it moves forward, as the times require, from its engineering achievement to equally distinguished achievement in the art of community building."

Sincerely yours,

C. H. WILLSON,
Regional Director.

TESTIMONY OF CAL A. WARD—Resumed

Mr. CURTIS. There are a few things that I want to ask you about in connection with your statements. Mr. Ward, just about 5 minutes: You tell this committee what the Farm Security Administration has done in the northern Great Plains region dealing with this problem of people on the farm. Just generally touch the highlights, summarizing your written statement.

FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION PROGRAM OF LOANS AND GRANTS

Mr. WARD. All right, Congressman. Of course, the Farm Security Administration presented us a rehabilitation program to start with, and we feel that this area, the northern Great Plains, is about the most distressed section, probably, in the whole United States, and has been for a good many years, because of continued drought, grasshoppers, and comparatively low prices for farm commodities. And the thing that has made it so grave is the continuation of the drought.

Mr. CURTIS. Yes.

Mr. WARD. And the lowering of the water table and deficiency in moisture, which has brought, I think, to most of the people here—a lot of the difficulty that makes special study of these problems, land grant colleges and the like, have pretty much come to the conclusion that if these farmers are to remain on the farms, we have got to reckon with this country as probably continuing to be pretty dry, even in the future, or for quite a considerable time.

Mr. CURTIS. Now, what are your activities confined to—making loans?

Mr. WARD. Right.

Mr. CURTIS. Including grants, too?

Mr. WARD. That is right, loans and grants. In my region we have loaned about $55,000,000 since 1935, and about $56,000,000 in grants. These loans are made to approved borrowers upon the development of a standard farm and home plan, and it is set out in that farm and home plan as to how the farmer and his family will operate that farm, and arrangements are made also for subsistence needs, home needs in the home plan, and it is not only a loan to the farmer, but it is realistic planning, and then guidance and supervision so that the plan is carried out.

Mr. CURTIS. What is the average size of your loan?

Mr. WARD. Well, I think it will average in this region now, with the supplemental loan, about $1,200.

Mr. CURTIS. What do you mean, supplemental loans?

Mr. WARD. Well, in addition to the original loan, because of additional drought, and the need for additional funds, we may make them supplemental loans.

Mr. CURTIS. The other day I was conferring with Mr. Baldwin's assistant and he explained an emergency loan where the need was great for feed and other things to preserve the farm as a whole, just for the especial needs. That is a loan that they offer to take care of the individual and it is not the regular loan with long-range planning. Is that right?

Mr. Ward. We made a lot of those in 1936. We haven't made any in this last year in this region.

Mr. Curtis. Is there any need for those now?

Mr. Ward. Well, there is need for funds for loans if these farmers in some of these worst distressed areas are to keep their livestock.

Mr. Curtis. Well, now, what rate of interest do you charge?

Mr. Ward. Five percent.

Mr. Curtis. And your regular type loan over how long a period?

Mr. Ward. They are made for 5 years, mostly.

Mr. Curtis. What does a farm family have to do, or what must their condition be to qualify for a grant?

Mr. Ward. They must be in need of funds for subsistence purposes. They must be farmers, or when last employed received a major part of their income from farming, and then they are eligible for grants, based upon their needs, size of the family, and supplementing what they may have of their own in the way of food and so on.

Mr. Curtis. Are they permitted to have any personal property at all and still qualify for the grant?

Mr. Ward. They must have exhausted all their credit resources.

Mr. Curtis. Now, do you carry that to a point where they must have exhausted their credit resources even to basic herds of livestock and milk cows and so on?

Mr. Ward. Well, we find from a practical standpoint, a realistic standpoint, that, I suppose, 99 percent of them, have everything mortgaged to the hilt.

Mr. Curtis. I think one of the most difficult problems that must be faced in this territory—and the reason is the drought prolonged for so many years—is that you have perhaps two classes of people that are attracting some attention. You have those who are in a condition where everything is gone, and you are taking care of those individuals for a good many years. Then there is another group that have practically been self-sustaining, although with a desperate effort and a lot of self-sacrifice, and no one really knows the hardship that they are going through right now. Do the grants reach those in that upper bracket that have been on their own?

Mr. Ward. I might say this: That our grant load is less now. It has been gradually going down. We have gone on the assumption that the general purpose is to try and do a good job with this farmer, and if he has land facilities and other capabilities, we try to whip him into shape for a regular standard loan. We don't like the relief angle. We say now that the grant is the first step in the rural rehabilitation. We try to get him started, say the first year with help in gardening and dairy products and poultry products, and the next year, maybe he has inadequate land facilities, so we supplement it with a grant. Ultimately he might get a farm that can stand the expense of the whole operation, and then we can make him a standard loan.

Mr. Curtis. Do you have administration of the farm tenancy benefits?

Mr. Ward. That is right.

Mr. CURTIS. About how many farms are you permitted to handle this year, under the appropriation?

Mr. WARD. I am not sure. I think it is about between 300 and 400 farms in the region.

Mr. CURTIS. What will be the average amount paid for that farm by the tenant, probably?

Mr. WARD. Well, I am guessing again—that would be around $8,000.

Mr. CURTIS. And what rate of interest will he have to pay?

Mr. WARD. Three percent.

Mr. CURTIS. And what are the Federal land banks charging now, with the reduction Congress has provided?

Mr. WARD. I am not in a position to say exactly.

Mr. CURTIS. I think it is about three and a half.

Mr. WARD. Three and a half or four; yes.

Mr. CURTIS. If there is such a thing as your average loan—you know the average type of farm that you deal with?

Mr. WARD. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. What do you loan him money for? Summarize what might be an average loan.

Mr. WARD. We loan him money for work stock, if he is starting from scratch especially, some farm machinery and some feed and seed. Oftentimes we need to get him started, if he is clear down and out, with general line of property that any farmer in this section would need to operate a medium-sized farm.

Mr. CURTIS. Are you taking any special steps to meet the need for feed in the drought area in Nebraska right now?

Mr. WARD. We have liberalized our grant program in that territory to some extent.

Mr. CURTIS. And what have you done on the loan angle of it?

Mr. WARD. Our facilities are available to handle as many of these farmers as come to us, where they have land facilities on which we can establish a standard farm and home plan, and we are ready to put on additional personnel to take care of that program so we can set these farmers up on what we think is a sound basis. It means some readjustment in acreage and getting them to get down to feed production, and livestock, and getting them away from cash grain crops.

Mr. CURTIS. Mr. Willson, in your territory, does it differ much from what Mr. Ward has said?

Mr. WILLSON. Well, I can just second what Mr. Ward has said as far as half of my region is concerned, which corresponds to the western region of these four States. In the western region, however, we do have the western slope, particularly in Montana and Colorado, where we have the problem of the dry-land farmers moving to the West Coast States. We do have that problem to meet out there, and we have the additional variation in that we have less of the good farming area; consequently, less crop loans probably—more livestock, more strictly grazing. A large part of the region is more strictly grazing, and this drought has caught us with a large number of farmers and stockmen who have not been in this low-income group in the past, but now coming right down, with no basis for credit and, hence, no source from which they could get any credit. This has caused us to vary the regular program, trying to throw props under these people, so to speak, that have gone on the downgrade, to save the foundation stock and help them back. We try to make a loan to such men and at least save the foundation stock and sufficient of their land with it to provide a unit adequate to support a family. We have had to do a lot of that, as well as do everything Mr. Ward has said here about building them to a standard loan.

WORK OF FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION HAS DECREASED MIGRATION IN NORTHERN GREAT PLAINS

Mr. Curtis. Might I say this to both of you: The exact title of this committee here is the investigation of the interstate migration of destitute persons, which was brought about because of the some 4,000,000 people that are homeless and stateless and jobless, and a third of them are children, wandering over the country. Do you feel that the work of the Farm Security Administration in this territory has made a contribution, either by increasing the number of migrants, by preventing it from increasing, or by taking migrants and making them useful citizens in some definite locality? What has been your observation as to your work in that light, Mr. Willson?

Mr. Willson. We have helped quite a lot in the western portion in our region, where they had already become migrants before they came in. We lowered our sights as to what a standard case is. We help them to get on a strictly subsistence level—that is, in western Montana, western Colorado levels—and help them get a small hold there. A big contribution, however, I think, in our region of farm security affecting the migration of farmers, has been in catching them before they started. We frequently make grants, temporarily, while we help with loans and assist with educational resources, to get them on a regular loan basis. There is comparatively small migration because of relocation within the counties and that sort of thing. This stabilizing of tenure is another very important point in heading off migration. For example, 4 years ago, in one county in Colorado, something over 80 percent of our clients had lived on their farm 1 year only—1 year or less. That period has been materially increased by this time through assisting in getting longer tenure. Of that 80 percent, some less than 5 percent had come from an outside county that year. Interstate migration is a very minor part of the migration problem. In Montana and in these three States—Montana is the top example—although they are now down to about a third of what they were. In that State we have had grants and loans to a little over 24,000, which is 47 and a fraction percent of the farm families of the State which we have assisted in keeping in place.

Mr. Curtis. Mr. Ward, will you make some comment?

Mr. Ward. We have in this region about 40,000 farmers for whom we have developed standard farm and home plans. I think I said my region included Kansas—there are 25 counties in southwest Kansas that are not in my region. The Farm Security Administration has been able to stem the tide with that number of people, and I think has done pretty well. Now, the best reports I can get as to progress made by these people is that between 85 and 90 percent of them are making definite progress, some to a marked degree, others to a fair degree. There is only a relatively small percent that are not making progress, so I think that what we have done is at least a forward step in the right direction, to tie these people to the land. And we find that there is something else; there is something human about it, that you can get people so they are satisfied, and they get back in the fighting mood again—they want to do things. But when they are down and out from year to year, their morale is broken, and I think all of you ought to think of that angle as well as the financial gains they might make.

DISPLACEMENT FROM INCREASED ACREAGE HOLDINGS

Mr. Curtis. Mr. Ward, in your paper you have said something about increased acreage holdings and the displacement of farm families. Would you care to comment on that?

Mr. Ward. I think that is one of the biggest obstacles that is confronting us in this region at this time. I have in mind one operator in Kansas who controls 80 sections of land. It seems that a lot of insurance companies and county commissioners that have taken lands back for taxes now want to sell those lands, and they are selling them for a small down payment. Some speculators or suitcase farmers may have a little extra capital, or they may take their "triple A" check to make the down payment. The net result is that it displaces a lot of farmers, and it is getting to be quite a serious thing throughout the region.

Mr. Curtis. What States does that apply to?

Mr. Ward. That is taking place more in the Dakotas than it is in either Kansas or Nebraska at the present time, but it is more or less true even in those States.

Mr. Curtis. Are those farms being thrown on the market because of tax sales and foreclosures of mortgages?

Mr. Ward. Yes; that is right. Those tax sales have caused the counties to throw a lot of them on the market in the Dakotas.

Mr. Curtis. In those States they had a lot of State checks?

Mr. Ward. Rural credits.

Mr. Curtis. The purpose was to take care of those people a few years ago. Is this a result of that?

Mr. Ward. No; I doubt that. The fact is that they are losing their lands. In South Dakota they have the rural credits, and in North Dakota the Bank of North Dakota.

Mr. Curtis. Now, have the rural credits in South Dakota and the Bank of North Dakota thrown an undue amount of land on the market for these so-called speculators or suitcase farmers to buy?

Mr. Ward. I think so. That is my opinion. I may be wrong in it, but I know there is a lot of land thrown on the market and a lot of it has also been bought from the Federal land bank.

Mr. Curtis. But these State agencies have had a lot of land they were anxious to get rid of?

Mr. Ward. That is right. I think there has been an extra move in the last 12 to 18 months to unload a lot of land.

Mr. Parsons. Counties haven't tried to operate any of those farms with tenants themselves?

Mr. Ward. I don't think so.

Mr. Parsons. And land in both North and South Dakota, when it is forfeited for taxes, goes to the counties and not to the State?

Mr. Ward. I think that is right.

Mr. Curtis. Mr. Ward, the Farm Security Administration has done a lot of work, an educational type of work, in regard to records and that sort of thing. Do you have any case records that you would like to submit to the committee?

Mr. Ward. I don't have any summary of them in writing at the present moment, but each farm family is asked to keep a farm and home record, and our experience has already taught us that it has been a very helpful thing in guiding the course of such a family the following year. They know what they are doing, and I want to emphasize at this time the live-at-home program. What I mean by that is the production of those things the family needs in the home. A good many farmers have put in a water facility that isn't costing the taxpayers a cent, and the educational program is beginning to make these people realize that they can grow a garden, maybe because of such a dam or well. We have some splendid examples of home gardens; in fact, I have one in my own yard, and we can have vegetables from early spring until late in the fall.

Mr. Parsons. I saw some of those yesterday.

Mr. Ward. They are a fine thing.

Mr. Curtis. Proceed.

EFFORTS TO PROMOTE SECURITY OF TENURE

Mr. Ward. I was going to say we are attempting to keep as many of these people satisfied on the farm as we can—that is our big challenge. The security of tenure is the thing that is confronting us, and we are able now to obtain a lot of 5-year leases and a few 10-year leases. I think we have one 15-year lease. We have found that if you are going to rehabilitate these families it can't be done by a farmer moving from place to place each year. And that is the whole Great Plains' big problem, a rather general problem of tying the people to the soil. I want to say that insurance companies and Federal land banks and the rest of the loan companies are working more closely with the farmer. We are gaining some ground in that respect, because we have found that if we can get the farmer to help himself it is also better for the mortgage holder.

Mr. Curtis. Mr. Willson, in connection with migration in your territory, do you have a problem of migratory labor in various types of farming in your territory?

Mr. Willson. Yes; not to the extent that I understand they have elsewhere, but we do have a problem of migratory labor, a little greater in Colorado than in the other two States. Vegetable workers in the South have come up to the fruit-picking on the western slope of Colorado for which labor is more preponderantly transient than the sugar-beet producing areas. However, the sugar-beet producing labor is pretty much residential, and migratory to the extent of about a third. In Montana and Wyoming, work in sugar beets is the main migratory labor.

Mr. PARSONS. Those are irrigated lands in Wyoming?

Mr. WILLSON. Yes; they can grow only under irrigation.

Mr. CURTIS. We have perhaps cut both of you short in some of our questions. If either one of you has anything else further that you would like to stress, we will be glad to hear that. As a matter of fact, your printed statements are going to be very helpful, because by the time the Nation-wide investigation is completed and we get ready to write a report, we are going to have to rely on the printed page a great deal.

But do either of you have some point you would like to call to the particular attention of the committee at this time?

DEVELOPMENT OF NATURAL RESOURCES AND CONSERVATION MEASURES

Mr. WILLSON. Yes; I have a point that I think I cover, probably rather completely, in the written record and that is the inadequacy of our rehabilitation program in itself to meet the needs of this northern Great Plains region—particularly as it pertains to this migration of agricultural persons. That program is inadequate because so many of the people are situated on inadequate units. It is very necessary for us to stabilize the greatest possible number of these people within their States—within their counties, if possible—and if they must migrate, to assist them in migrating as short a distance as possible, so as to affect the governmental and social set-up in an area as little as possible. It is necessary that there be more educational activities, and in addition to our regular rehabilitation work, it is necessary that we develop all of our natural resources up here to the greatest degree possible, if we are to meet the situation. I refer, amongst other things, to this area where there is quite a lot of soil, pretty good soil, that needs much greater developments of the water resources of the area. These resources can be developed very largely. Some of them will be large in character; many of them small. The smaller and more widespread they are, the greater the stabilizing effect on the farmers on the dry land.

Mr. CURTIS. As a matter of fact, we have been, by our practice over the past years, hurrying the water to the sea, when we should have been holding it back?

Mr. WILLSON. Yes. And in that respect I think it is extremely important that it not be thought of merely as development of water for the settling of eighty or a hundred clients or so in an area, but rather that the developments be considered with respect to an entire area, such as a county or, better, of two or three counties. The necessity, therefore, is not only to get these families set up as successful self-sustaining units but also of so selecting families from dry-land areas and of obtaining control of the lands from which they are selected, that those lands can be made to support the families remaining in the areas. If they are adjacent to farm units set up in irrigation territory, they could be established as grazing districts and that sort of thing. In that same line, it seems extremely important that conservation in the dry-land areas and measures toward conservation through the organization into districts be made as I have suggested, in order to get control of this land; that conservation features be stressed during this period while they are developing the water and the land on which they are going to put water, because it, of course, needs development of various kinds; that this other land be prepared so the other families can work it. They are available there as labor to do the conservation that needs to be done. Then, too, if we are to accomplish the purpose of stabilizing the greatest number of families possible, it should go hand in hand with this increased emphasis. And for every one family you resettle on an irrigation farm you will probably stabilize two families out on dry land somewhere and a couple or three families in a small rural town in the communities where these developments are going on. You can extend your influence and help that many more families if the proper authorizations can be given at this time to get funds and do some of those things. Increased emphasis, as I have indicated, and funds for submarginal land purchase would help as a means of controlling areas from which families should be selected.

Mr. Curtis. Mr. Ward, do you have any further comments you would like to make?

LONG-TIME PROGRAM OF FARMER AID RECOMMENDED

Mr. Ward. My last word is, I don't think we have nearly exhausted all the possibilities there are in keeping families on the farms. Now, probably one of the reasons it has failed in the past, one of the reasons, is because of poor planning and poor management. The Farm Security Administration has been the test of the thing. The job of planning we do, in the first place, is getting the farmer started right. If his farm may appear to be inadequate in acres, yet well planned out and intensified, we can still keep this family tied to the soil. I have been a great believer in the triple A, and I know that no mechanism is perfect from the start, but I have often felt that if that benefit payment could be held down to what Mr. E. A. Willson said—perhaps a thousand dollars—it would be one of the ways of keeping suitcase farmers and land hogs from grabbing this land.

Mr. Parsons. We did put a limitation on that in the last bill, if I recall.

Mr. Ward. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. Of course, it is still too high.

Mr. Ward. Yes.

Chairman Tolan. We found a similar sentiment in the South, at a hearing in Montgomery, Ala., that the large payment to the big plantation owner, the corporate owner, was forcing the family sized operator off.

Mr. Ward. There is no question about it.

Chairman Tolan. And I feel this way, Mr. Ward, that any expenditure should be tested on this premise: Whether or not it helps people to help themselves.

Mr. Ward. That is right.

Chairman **Tolan**. And I feel the Farm Security Administration—I know there have been some errors, some mistakes—that it does meet that test. Now, this is a legislative committee that is interested in the long-time solution and that plans to make some recommendations to Congress. There are a few pressing problems right here in Nebraska that have to be met in some manner in the next few days or weeks, and that is the lack of feed is going to cause a big exodus of people this fall. Sympathetic as this committee is toward it, that is hardly within the scope of its activities. We have a report that is not due until January that deals with the long-time legislative program. I think there is a problem here that will have to be met by some or all of the agencies of the Department of Agriculture, and they will, perhaps, have to go farther than they have so far. As I say, I feel that we must direct our attention to helping, when we spend money, to spend it so that it will do some permanent good in helping people to help themselves.

Mr. **Ward**. That even goes with a grant—a $20 grant to a family. It is the first meager step, or ought to be, in the process of rehabilitation.

NUMBER AND STATUS OF FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION LOANS IN NORTHERN GREAT PLAINS REGION

Mr. **Parsons**. What percentage of the total farm families in your region do you have loans with?

Mr. **Ward**. We have a little less than 40,000 loans made—that is, the standard loans—and we have in my region between four and five hundred thousand farmers.

Mr. **Parsons**. So you have approximately 10 percent?

Mr. **Ward**. Of course, a great many of the other farmers don't need it.

Mr. **Parsons**. And what is the percentage in your region, Mr. Willson?

Mr. **Willson**. On loans it is right between 10 and 15 percent.

Mr. **Parsons**. How many are in default at the present time—what percentage?

Mr. **Willson**. I can't give you the percentages of those in default. The amount of collections is approximately what is due. That doesn't mean that there are not people in default, because some have paid in advance of what is due. We are just a very little below what is due—2 or 3 percent.

Mr. **Parsons**. How is it in your region, Mr. Ward?

Mr. **Ward**. Not quite so optimistic. We have made total loans of about $54,000,000 and we have collected back about six and two-thirds million dollars. But a lot of repayments are being made now, although they aren't due.

Mr. **Parsons**. Do you have any figures on what percentage of these farms the Federal land bank has loans on in the two regions?

Mr. **Willson**. I don't have those figures with me.

Mr. **Parsons**. The suggestion was made to me yesterday that probably, in the State of Nebraska, about 10 percent.

Mr. **Willson**. Ten percent of what?

Mr. Parsons. Of the total farms in both States have loans from the Federal land banks.

Mr. Willson. I think I was told that there were more than 25,000 Federal land bank loans in South Dakota—25,000.

Mr. Parsons. Now, the insurance companies own quite a block of these farms, too, do they not?

Mr. Ward. That is right.

Mr. Parsons. Probably as many as the Federal land bank?

Mr. Ward. Probably.

Mr. Parsons. And those are all tenant farmers, in each instance. Probably half of the ones that the Farm Security Administration is backing are tenant farmers, also, is that true, would you say?

Mr. Ward. Two-thirds.

Mr. Willson. At least two-thirds.

The Chairman. You have got a great deal of hope right now, with the drought condition especially, existing in this region, of getting farm ownership started in a big way. If you had the rain's aid, the moisture in this territory, probably a lot of these men would repossess their farms, would they not?

Mr. Ward. I feel that we have to change the type of agriculture out here and get away from cash grain and livestock; and that is going to mean a reorganization of thousands of farm units, with plenty of funds available from some source to make it effective, for loans and administration.

The Chairman. I agree with you. But, of course, if they go back, in the final account, in 10 or 15 years—they would go back to grain crops. That is human nature.

Mr. Curtis. Your statements have been very helpful indeed, and I appreciate hearing them. I want to congratulate you two men on the fine job you are doing here in the West with the Farm Security. You are doing a better job than they are doing down in Illinois. And the first-hand observation that I have of a few cases I have been able to see in my own congressional district and the fortitude and determination of the Nebraska farmer impressed me very much.

Thank you.

The Chairman. Just a minute. Congressman Parsons asked about the condition of these loans, whether or not they were being paid back. Dr. Alexander was administrator of the Farm Security before he was transferred. He told me their figures there in Washington showed 85 percent were being paid back, and probably that is about the correct figure. But what continually bothers me about this proposition all the time is simply this: That we can get the causes—it's soil displacement, circumstances over which the farmer has no control. They have to move. The approach that you people are tackling is to keep them there if possible, and I understand that, but in the nature of things you can't keep them all there, can you? They will migrate.

Mr. Ward. That is right.

The Chairman. All right. Then the practical proposition for this committee, I think the main proposition, is: What are we going to do with them when they do move? They are citizens of the 48

States, under the Constitution, and they run up against these barriers and they lose their residence in the State of origin and they can't get residence at the State of destination, so they are kicked around just like animals. Don't you think we have got to consider them as our people?

Mr. WARD. Absolutely.

The CHAIRMAN. Our people—good American people who want to stay at home, and we have got to fix some sort of status for them when they do move, so that they are not outcasts. As we have said here repeatedly, there are thousands by the roadsides today.

Mr. WILLSON. We have to go further and quicker and faster than that. We have to get to the point of developing our national resources so we can direct them to the point where they should go.

The CHAIRMAN. Yes; we have heard a lot of testimony about that—misinformation as to where there is employment and where there isn't employment is a very bad feature of the situation.

Mr. WILLSON. I think it is, yes.

Mr. WARD. I think it is possible to keep these people fairly secure, if we will use and develop a lot of resources and things that we have.

The CHAIRMAN. I think that we will be able at least to attract the Nation's attention to it, and when it is once attracted I think we will be able to make some recommendations that will improve the conditions.

Mr. WILLSON. This statement would not be true of Mr. Ward's region, but in the three States in my region, if we could develop the water that can be developed there and move the people from their dry land units and make the poorest into grazing, and so forth, we have plenty of resources to support all the people in those three States, but we do need additional authorizations and funds.

The CHAIRMAN. I was amazed to learn the other day that Oregon—you drive through that country there, a beautiful State and not very much increase in population, and one-half of the land in Oregon is owned by the Federal Government. There certainly is undeveloped soil and resources in that country, and that is why the resettlement proposition is very intriguing.

We are very grateful to you gentlemen. Thank you very much.

(Witnesses excused.)

TESTIMONY OF MR. AND MRS. SOREN OLSEN, OMAHA, NEBR.

Mr. PARSONS. State your name and address to the reporter here, for the record.

Mrs. OLSEN. Mr. and Mrs. Soren Olsen, Omaha.

Mr. PARSONS. Mr. Olsen, where were you born?

Mr. OLSEN. Denmark.

Mr. PARSONS. In what year?

Mr. OLSEN. 1899.

Mr. PARSONS. When did you come to this country?

Mr. OLSEN. 1915.

Mr. PARSONS. Have you acquired citizenship since coming?

Mr. OLSEN. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. What year?

Mr. Olsen. 1922.

Mr. Parsons. Where were you born, Mrs. Olsen?

Mrs. Olsen. South Dakota.

Mr. Parsons. You are a natural-born citizen of the United States, of course?

Mrs. Olsen. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. Do you have any children?

Mrs. Olsen. Yes; I have two boys.

Mr. Parsons. Is this one son here?

Mrs. Olsen. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. And how old is the other one?

Mrs. Olsen. He is 20, serving 4 years in the Army.

Mr. Parsons. What branch of the service?

Mrs. Olsen. Infantry.

Mr. Parsons. When you first came to this country, where did you settle, Mr. Olsen?

Mr. Olsen. In Shelby County, Iowa.

Mr. Parsons. What work did you do when you came?

Mr. Olsen. Farming.

Mr. Parsons. Had you been a farmer in Denmark?

Mr. Olsen. Some, not very much.

Mr. Parsons. You were born on a farm?

Mr. Olsen. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. What other type of work have you done in this country?

Mr. Olsen. Almost everything—been a cook, baker, carpenter.

Mr. Parsons. Did you start out to be a baker by trade?

Mr. Olsen. Well, I started that after I got married, worked about 10 years in a bakery.

Mr. Parsons. What wages did you earn as a farm hand?

Mr. Olsen. Farm hand? Oh, I guess $25 a month, at that time.

Mr. Parsons. And board and keep?

Mr. Olsen. Oh, yes.

Mr. Parsons. Before you married?

Mr. Olsen. Oh, yes.

Mr. Parsons. What have you been doing the last few years?

Mr. Olsen. I worked for a seed and nursery company the last 5 years, in South Dakota.

Mr. Parsons. Are you working there now?

Mr. Olsen. No, sir.

Mr. Parsons. How come you to quit that job?

Mr. Olsen. Disagreed with them last winter and quit them and left them.

Mr. Parsons. Last winter?

Mr. Olsen. Yes; last February.

Mr. Parsons. How much were you making with the company?

Mr. Olsen. Seventeen or seventeen-fifty a week.

Mr. Parsons. What happened after you left the job? Did you receive unemployment compensation?

Mr. Olsen. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. For how many weeks?

Mr. Olsen. Four checks for last year, and the full amount this year; that was for 1939 and 1938.

Mr. Parsons. How much per week?

Mr. Olsen. Eleven-fifty for four checks, and the rest of the time I got $10.50.

Mr. Parsons. Have you sought work since that time?

Mr. Olsen. I sought it, but I haven't been able to find it yet.

Mr. Parsons. Were you employed in Omaha for a time after you left this company last year?

Mr. Olsen. Seven days.

Mr. Parsons. What were you doing?

Mr. Olsen. Seed and nursery company.

Mr. Parsons. You seem to be experienced in that particular line of work.

Mr. Olsen. I worked at it 5 years.

Mr. Parsons. How did you happen to go down to Omaha?

Mr. Olsen. I figured I would find work there. I used to be there years ago.

Mr. Parsons. There is always the hope and feeling that you will find work if you go some place else?

Mr. Olsen. I did find work but I got hurt.

Mr. Parsons. In the 7 days you worked there?

Mr. Olsen. Yes; I hurt my back, and couldn't work for about a month.

Mr. Parsons. Have you ever applied for relief?

Mr. Olsen. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. Was it granted?

Mr. Olsen. I get some now, but I don't belong down here in Nebraska yet.

Mr. Parsons. How much relief have you been getting?

Mr. Olsen. Now, $18 a month.

Mr. Parsons. You and your wife and your child?

Mr. Olsen. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. And you are living at the present time where?

Mr. Olsen. In Omaha.

Mr. Parsons. How long have you been in Nebraska?

Mr. Olsen. The 6th day of February, I guess it was.

Mr. Parsons. What are the settlement laws on that? How long do you have to be in the State of Nebraska to get relief?

Mr. Olsen. Well, a year, I guess it is, in order to belong here.

Mr. Parsons. Do you have any ambition to go back to the Dakotas?

Mr. Olsen. Yes; I do. I have a chance to go back to work up there, so I hope to get back this fall again.

Mr. Parsons. You think you will have an opportunity to work back there?

Mr. Olsen. Well, I can get back to work at my old job this fall again.

Mr. Parsons. With these same people, in the seed and nursery business?

Mr. Olsen. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. I see. So you plan to go back there now?

Mr. Olsen. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. You haven't had much difficulty with the settlement laws between South Dakota and Nebraska?

Mr. Olsen. Well——

Mr. Parsons (interposing). Except, of course, you have been away too long to go back and get aid there if you wanted to have it?

Mr. Olsen. No; not now.

Mr. Parsons. You are expecting to be self-supporting?

Mr. Olsen. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. You haven't got any serious grievance against the county authorities or the State authorities in either one of these States?

Mr. Olsen. No.

Mr. Parsons. They have been very nice and kind to you?

Mr. Olsen. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. I think that is all, Mr. Chairman. Your case is very much like scores of others that we have heard at these hearings—a fair example of thousands of people that on one account or another are forced into migration. Thank you very much for coming.

TESTIMONY OF MRS. HAROLD HENDRICKS, LINCOLN, NEBR.

The Chairman. State your name, please.

Mrs. Hendricks. Mrs. Harold Hendricks.

The Chairman. Where is your home?

Mrs. Hendricks. Lincoln, Nebr.

The Chairman. Were you born in Nebraska?

Mrs. Hendricks. Yes; I was.

The Chairman. Where?

Mrs. Hendricks. Princeton, Nebr.

The Chairman. Where from Lincoln?

Mrs. Hendricks. Seventeen miles south of Lincoln, on the highway.

The Chairman. What does your father do?

Mrs. Hendricks. He is a farmer.

The Chairman. Where is he located?

Mrs. Hendricks. Princeton.

The Chairman. What was your education, Mrs. Hendricks?

Mrs. Hendricks. I have a high-school education.

The Chairman. And where did you graduate?

Mrs. Hendricks. From Cortland High School.

The Chairman. Where is that?

Mrs. Hendricks. Twenty-one miles south of Lincoln.

The Chairman. When did you leave the farm?

Mrs. Hendricks. In 1928.

The Chairman. You were 19 then?

Mrs. Hendricks. Yes.

The Chairman. Where did you go, to Lincoln?

Mrs. Hendricks. Yes.

The Chairman. What have you done, then?

Mrs. Hendricks. I have done housework for 5 years; I have been married.

The CHAIRMAN. When did you get married?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. In 1933.

The CHAIRMAN. Did you find considerable work of that kind in Lincoln?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. Yes; I had work all the time I was here, but I have had my best jobs since I got married; I got about $6 a week when I started.

The CHAIRMAN. You call that pretty good wages?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. Well, to what it is now, yes.

The CHAIRMAN. Well, what is the best money you ever made after you got married?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. Well, between 8 and 9 dollars a week; sometimes 9, but it was mostly 8.

The CHAIRMAN. Do you have any children?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. I have one little girl who is 6, and one who is 1 year old.

The CHAIRMAN. What occupation does your husband follow?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. He is a landscaper and nurseryman.

The CHAIRMAN. Has it been easy for him to get work?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. No; it hasn't.

The CHAIRMAN. You left here, then, didn't you, and went to Oregon?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. Yes; in 1937; and moved in order to find more work, and we really did find it when we got out there.

The CHAIRMAN. You mean your husband?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. He and I both.

The CHAIRMAN. What part of Oregon?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. Portland.

The CHAIRMAN. What did he do?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. Well, he did construction work, and when he first worked he worked in a sawmill, and they closed down. We first went to Scotts Mill, Oreg., and then when the mill closed we went to Portland and then he got a construction job. And I got a housekeeping job for $30 a month.

The CHAIRMAN. Did you work in the summer?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. From June on, yes.

The CHAIRMAN. Then he had steady work all summer, did he?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. Yes; and wages were real good; he got $6 a day.

The CHAIRMAN. And you got $30 a month?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. Yes.

The CHAIRMAN. When did your work run out?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. It didn't run out. We just came home.

The CHAIRMAN. Got homesick for Nebraska?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. I'll say.

The CHAIRMAN. What transportation did you use?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. We came back in a big truck. There was 23 people in that big truck.

The CHAIRMAN. Twenty-three people?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. Yes.

The CHAIRMAN. How did you happen to use that sore of conveyance?

Mrs. Hendricks. Well, they run an ad there in the paper, and, of course, we didn't intend to go, until my husband saw all the rest of them ready to go home, so he decided to, too.

The Chairman. Twenty-three of you: How long did it take you to make that trip?

Mrs. Hendricks. Four days.

The Chairman. How much did they charge?

Mrs. Hendricks. Twenty dollars for us.

The Chairman. Each?

Mrs. Hendricks. No; with four of us.

The Chairman. Well, was that truck taking regular transportation business, or what?

Mrs. Hendricks. Well, I guess he had taken a load out there; then, see, he got to take his trip by taking people to make his expenses.

The Chairman. We heard testimony in Alabama where there were a lot of these trucks who gathered them up in Florida, down South, and drove through across State lines and no license or anything else, and charged them $17 apiece.

Was it a man you knew?

Mrs. Hendricks. It was a man from Nebraska; we didn't know him.

The Chairman. What did you do when you came back here?

Mrs. Hendricks. We had enough money to make a down payment on a big truck the mister used in his business, and we had work until October or November, and then we had to go on relief.

The Chairman. What year was that?

Mrs. Hendricks. 1931.

The Chairman. 1931. You went on relief?

Mrs. Hendricks. Well, we was back in a month and a half.

The Chairman. Well, now, did you go back to Oregon again?

Mrs. Hendricks. Yes; in the following year.

The Chairman. How did you go back?

Mrs. Hendricks. We went back in a—oh, we didn't have money enough to go, so we put an ad in the paper and got people to go with us to make our expenses, in our big truck. So we got out there.

The Chairman. It wasn't the same fellow that brought you, was it?

Mrs. Hendricks. No; it was our own truck, and we took I think 17 people.

The Chairman. You went in the trucking business yourself?

Mrs. Hendricks. Yes.

The Chairman. Well, then, what did you do after you got there, in Oregon?

Mrs. Hendricks. Well, we found work, of course. Mister's two brothers went with us. And they done landscaping out there. We made a good living, and we would have stayed out there, but the fall rains started, and we didn't have enough money saved, and we came back.

The Chairman. You got homesick again?

Mrs. Hendricks. No; not that time.

The Chairman. When did you get back here?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. That time we got back here in October of 1938.

The CHAIRMAN. How did you come back?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. We bought a car—sold the truck and bought another car and came back.

The CHAIRMAN. What kind of car did you buy?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. A Buick—but I imagine it was a '28 or '29 model.

The CHAIRMAN. A little rustry, eh?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. Yes.

The CHAIRMAN. Is your husband a good mechanic?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. Oh, pretty fair.

The CHAIRMAN. What happened when you got back to Lincoln again?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. Well, we didn't—we was on our own then, and we didn't have to get relief until the spring of 1939.

The CHAIRMAN. Are you on relief now?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. Yes; we are.

The CHAIRMAN. Did you have any trouble about your residence or your settlement in getting relief here after you had been gone to Oregon?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. No; we made a trip this year again to Oregon, and then when we got out there he could only find 2 days' work, and then we just run out of money and we had to apply for relief, and they were rather nice about it, but they did tell us we were nonresidents, and they couldn't help us, but they helped us until they got the Travelers' Aid to send us home.

The CHAIRMAN. Did you have any difficulty getting relief in Nebraska?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. Well, this residence—yes, they really gave us a good talking to because we left; they seemed to think we shouldn't have left, and we figured if we had stayed here we would have had to have been on relief anyway, because mister can't find work during the summertime in Lincoln, and of course they put us on, but we didn't get help for a while.

The CHAIRMAN. How long have you been on relief now?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. We have been back in town just a month today, and we didn't get on for about 3 or 4 days after we got back.

The CHAIRMAN. Is your husband looking for work now?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. Yes; he is.

The CHAIRMAN. Now, how much do you get, relief money?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. With the stamps, we are allowed $15 every 2 weeks.

The CHAIRMAN. Do you get along all right with that?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. Yes; I do.

The CHAIRMAN. How much do you pay for rent?

Mrs. HENDRICKS. Seventeen.

The CHAIRMAN. Well, that doesn't leave much——

Mrs. HENDRICKS (interposing). Well, that rent money, the mister has to make that, but that $30, we live pretty good on that now.

The CHAIRMAN. When did you figure you would make your next trip to Oregon?

Mrs. Hendricks. I hope it can be next year. I really won't be satisfied until we can live out there.

The Chairman. What are the chances for employment here now for your husband; do you know?

Mrs. Hendricks. There really isn't any. That is how we get by now. If it wasn't for the stamps the relief give us, we wouldn't have any groceries, but that's the way we raise the money for the rent, with the truck.

The Chairman. How did you happen to overlook California?

Mrs. Hendricks. We know people down there, and they haven't been able to get money enough to come back.

The Chairman. Thank you very much.

TESTIMONY OF MRS. BEATRICE MICHELSON, OMAHA, NEBR.

Mr. Curtis. You are Mrs. Beatrice Michelson?

Mrs. Michelson. Yes, sir.

Mr. Curtis. Where are you living at this time?

Mrs. Michelson. Omaha, Nebr.

Mr. Curtis. Where were you born?

Mrs. Michelson. Pacific Junction.

Mr. Curtis. What education do you have?

Mrs. Michelson. Eighth grade.

Mr. Curtis. Was that in town or in the country?

Mrs. Michelson. In the country school.

Mr. Curtis. Did you spend all your time on the farm until you were married?

Mrs. Michelson. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. Your parents are on a farm?

Mrs. Michelson. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. How many brothers and sisters do you have?

Mrs. Michelson. Five brothers and two sisters.

Mr. Curtis. How do their ages compare with yours?

Mrs. Michelson. They are all older.

Mr. Curtis. What did you do when you left school in the eighth grade?

Mrs. Michelson. Helped mother on the farm is all.

Mr. Curtis. At what age were you married?

Mrs. Michelson. Seventeen.

Mr. Curtis. You have how many children now?

Mrs. Michelson. Five.

Mr. Curtis. How old are they?

Mrs. Michelson. From 16 on down to 6; the oldest, 16, is a girl, and a boy 13, one 12, and one 9, and a girl 6.

Mr. Curtis. Your oldest girl is married?

Mrs. Michelson. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. That is the 16-year-old one?

Mrs. Michelson. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. What was your husband's occupation at the time you were married?

Mrs. Michelson. Farming; a tenant farmer.

Mr. CURTIS. What year were you married?

Mrs. MICHELSON. In 1923.

Mr. CURTIS. What was his wages at that time?

Mrs. MICHELSON. From $50 to $60 a month.

Mr. CURTIS. Was he a farm hand, or farming for himself?

Mrs. MICHELSON. No; a farm hand.

Mr. CURTIS. His wages: Did that include living quarters for you?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Yes; we had a house on the same farm.

Mr. CURTIS. How long did he continue farming?

Mrs. MICHELSON. About 8 years.

Mr. CURTIS. That was about 1931?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. And where did he do this farming?

Mrs. MICHELSON. In Iowa, down around Bartlett.

Mr. CURTIS. Living in the country, you were able to get along on this cash income of $50 or $60?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. You kept the children in school, those who were old enough?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. When did your husband cease farming?

Mrs. MICHELSON. In 1931.

Mr. CURTIS. What did he do then?

Mrs. MICHELSON. He became a minister.

Mr. CURTIS. Minister of what church?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Holiness Church.

Mr. CURTIS. What is the other name for that church—Pentecostal?

Mrs. MICHELSON. No; it isn't Pentecostal. He finally turned out to be a Pentecostal, but it was Holiness.

Mr. CURTIS. What education had he had?

Mrs. MICHELSON. An eighth-grade education.

Mr. CURTIS. Had he had any particular education outside of school for religious leadership?

Mrs. MICHELSON. No.

Mr. CURTIS. When did he change from the Holiness Church to the Pentecostal?

Mrs. MICHELSON. About 3 years ago.

Mr. CURTIS. Now, did he get a charge in some place, or what sort of work did he do?

Mrs. MICHELSON. No; he was an evangelist, just running around, you know, different States and around.

Mr. CURTIS. Did you accompany him?

Mrs. MICHELSON. What?

Mr. CURTIS. Did you accompany him around?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Well, until the children got in school, and I knew they wouldn't get their education until I settled down, so I just settled down.

Mr. CURTIS. Where were some of the places you went with him?

Mrs. MICHELSON. In Barnico Springs.

Mr. CURTIS. In what State?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Missouri.

Mr. CURTIS. How long were you down there?

Mrs. MICHELSON. We were there 3 years, and then we went back to Iowa and then back, and 2 years there.

Mr. CURTIS. Was he preaching in one particular place, or did he travel about?

Mrs. MICHELSON. He traveled about most of the time.

Mr. CURTIS. In a number of States at that time?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Missouri and Arkansas, mostly.

Mr. CURTIS. When did you come back to Iowa, then?

Mrs. MICHELSON. About 6 months ago.

Mr. CURTIS. Did your husband come back with you?

Mrs. MICHELSON. No; he left. He had a Spanish singer he went with, and he went with her.

Mr. CURTIS. You mean your husband deserted you?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. And this Spanish singer was an evangelist who had been traveling with him?

Mrs. MICHELSON. She went with him; yes.

Mr. CURTIS. When was the last time you heard from him?

Mrs. MICHELSON. I don't hear from him at all. He said he was leaving and not coming back any more. That is the last time I heard from him.

Mr. CURTIS. When was that?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Two or three months ago.

Mr. CURTIS. Where were you living at that time?

Mrs. MICHELSON. In Shelton, Mo.

Mr. CURTIS. When he left you?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Yes. Out in the country, in a shack.

Mr. CURTIS. In a shack, just some vacant house that you and the family moved in?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. Now, how were you getting along at that time? Where were you getting provisions?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Just what the neighbors gave us is all.

Mr. CURTIS. You went from there into Iowa?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Yes; my sister and her husband came after us and brought us up there.

Mr. CURTIS. Did your sister provide for you there?

Mrs. MICHELSON. They have been trying to take care of us here. We came up here and I have been trying to get employment.

Mr. CURTIS. Are they financially able to support you and your children?

Mrs. MICHELSON. No.

Mr. CURTIS. Did you apply for relief in Iowa?

Mrs. MICHELSON. No; I didn't. We were only there 2 weeks. I didn't think we were there long enough to get relief.

Mr. CURTIS. You are in Omaha now?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. How long ago did you go to Omaha?

Mrs. MICHAELSON. About 5 or 6 months ago.

Mr. CURTIS. That was before your experience in Missouri?

Mrs. MICHELSON. No; I heard from him there; I heard from him and he said he wasn't coming back ever.

Mr. Curtis. Where did you hear from him?

Mrs. Michelson. Shelton, Mo. He came back, I guess, while I was gone.

Mr. Curtis. Has he obtained a divorce?

Mrs. Michelson. Not that I know of, he hasn't.

Mrs. Curtis. Have you asked for any aid in Omaha?

Mrs. Michelson. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. What did they tell you?

Mrs. Michelson. I had to be there a year before I could get any aid at all.

Mr. Curtis. Well, where is your legal home, if you have one; do you know?

Mrs. Michelson. Well, we live in a one-room apartment on Dodge Street in Omaha is my home; we have been there about a month.

Mr. Curtis. Do you consider yourself a resident of Missouri or Iowa or Nebraska?

Mrs. Michelson. Omaha is where I want to make my home, if I can.

Mr. Curtis. Have you made any application for relief in Missouri?

Mrs. Michelson. No. It wouldn't be enough to keep me if I did, and the children and everything. The relief is awful skimpy down there.

Mr. Curtis. What part of Missouri is it?

Mrs. Michelson. Barton County.

Mr. Curtis. What section of Missouri is it, down in the Ozarks?

Mrs. Michelson. Yes; right on the edge of the Ozarks; it is west of Springfield.

Mr. Curtis. Your daughter that is married: Are they able to assist you?

Mrs. Michelson. No; he just picks up work now and then, is all he can do.

Mr. Curtis. Well, are any of your brothers able to help you?

Mrs. Michelson. No; they are not.

Mr. Curtis. Willing but not able, is that the way of it?

Mrs. Michelson. Yes; that is it.

Mr. Curtis. You have asked for relief, though, in Omaha?

Mrs. Michelson. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. Did they tell you you should have a legal settlement there in a year?

Mrs. Michelson. They said they couldn't give me any relief whatever until I had been there a year.

Mr. Curtis. Did they say whether or not they would be able to give you relief at the end of the year?

Mrs. Michelson. They didn't say exactly, but they said I would have to be there a year.

Mr. Curtis. They didn't say your residence was with your husband, even if you had none?

Mrs. Michelson. No.

Mr. Curtis. Who is caring for you now?

Mrs. Michelson. My sisters are paying for the rent.

Mr. Curtis. Where are the children now?

Mrs. MICHELSON. In school now.

Mr. CURTIS. With you?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Yes; with me.

Mr. CURTIS. Who is furnishing the food and clothes?

Mrs. MICHELSON. My sisters are trying to do that. They go in together.

Mr. CURTIS. Are you getting any private charity?

Mrs. MICHELSON. No. I got one of my boys a pair of shoes at the Salvation Army, and that is all I could get.

Mr. CURTIS. Your sisters live in Omaha?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Yes; on Dodge Street.

Mr. CURTIS. What are you going to do now? Are you able to seek employment?

Mrs. MICHELSON. That is what I would like to do. I have been trying to get employment, but I haven't found any.

Mr. CURTIS. But your youngest child is——

Mrs. MICHELSON (interposing). Six years old.

Mr. CURTIS. The youngest one is 6?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Six years old.

Mr. CURTIS. So they are all in school?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. What are your chances of getting employment? Have you had any encouragement?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Well, I don't know. I have been trying to find work days if I could, so I could be home with the children at night. It seems like the only employment I get wants me to stay at night, and I can't do that.

Mr. CURTIS. If you don't get employment, do you know what you're going to do?

Mrs. MICHELSON. No; I don't.

Mr. CURTIS. That is all.

The CHAIRMAN. Where does your husband claim his legal residence?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Well, I guess he doesn't claim any. He really isn't in any one place long enough to claim any residence.

Mr. CURTIS. How did you get along?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Well, we got along all right until he started running around.

The CHAIRMAN. What are you able to do in the line of work?

Mrs. MICHELSON. I try to do anything I can.

The CHAIRMAN. As far as relief is concerned, you are up against it, because you can't establish any legal residence?

Mrs. MICHELSON. Yes.

The CHAIRMAN. Thank you very much, Mrs. Michelson.

TESTIMONY OF PAUL D. BENNER, DIRECTOR, BUREAU OF PUBLIC ASSISTANCE, STATE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WELFARE, TOPEKA, KANS., ALSO REPRESENTING GOV. PAYNE H. RATNER, OF KANSAS

Mr. PARSONS. Mr. Benner, state your name and address and your title and whom you represent for the benefit of the record.

Mr. **Benner.** Paul D. Benner, director of the bureau of public assistance, State department of social welfare of Kansas. I am also representing Governor Ratner, of Kansas.

Mr. **Parsons.** Will you express the appreciation of this committee to the Governor for his fine cooperation, and your own cooperation in coming here. You have presented a very fine statement for the record, and we are very glad to have it. We have received many statements from many of the State departments of public welfare or their kindred organizations, and we hope to have a lot more of them during the hearings at Oklahoma City and in California. You are engaged in a very fine occupation, a very human occupation.

POPULATION LOSSES IN KANSAS, 1930–40

Could you tell the committee some of the preliminary information regarding the population change in Kansas in the 1940 census, compared with 1930?

Mr. **Benner.** Yes. Kansas lost in the 1940 census—that is a tentative figure. It is a newspaper release, and it has not been released by the Census Bureau to me.

Mr. **Parsons.** It won't be many thousands off.

Mr. **Benner.** No. Kansas has lost, in the 10-year interval, 82,184 persons, which is a decrease in the population of 4.37 percent.

Mr. **Parsons.** That is about the same percentage as Nebraska has lost.

Mr. **Benner.** Is that so?

Mr. **Tarsons.** That is the total.

Mr. **Benner.** Interesting enough, 90 counties out of the State's 105 counties lost population in that 10-year interval. The range on the population was less than 1 percent up to 46 percent. One county in the State lost 46 percent of its population.

Mr. **Parsons.** Was it some particular local situation that caused this one county to lose so much?

Mr. **Benner.** That is the southwest section of Kansas, which was known, in 1936 and 1937, as the Dust Bowl. All of those counties.

Mr. **Parsons.** It was a part of that?

Mr. **Benner.** That is the Panhandle section. Some sections, some counties in the State, due to oil activity, increased in population, consequently. All of the counties in the State where there was a large metropolitan area—that is, large for the Middle West—the population gained.

Mr. **Parsons.** But there was a net loss, all told, in spite of the normal increase in population—an absolute net loss?

Mr. **Benner.** Yes; of 82,000, or 4.37 percent.

Mr. **Parsons.** And the normal increase holds in Kansas the same as it does in any other State of the Union?

Mr. **Benner.** I assume, from my past knowledge of population, that since Kansas is an agricultural State, that probably the birth rate in Kansas is higher than it would be in the total population of the country.

Mr. **Parsons.** In the cities, especially?

Mr. **Benner.** Yes.

RESULTS OF MECHANIZATION OF WHEAT INDUSTRY IN KANSAS

Mr. PARSONS. Now, to what extent have agricultural workers come into your State to participate in the harvest of crops, especially the wheat crop? Kansas is a big wheat State.

Mr. BENNER. That has not been much of a problem in recent years. The wheat industry in Kansas is mechanized almost a hundred percent.

Mr. PARSONS. Has that displaced a lot of labor, people living either as tenants on smaller farms or who have migrated from one section of the State to the other, intrastate, just for the harvest time?

Mr. BENNER. It's displaced, certainly, your local farm labor, both your farm tenant and your farm labor. Many of those people have left the State. The ones who haven't left the State have gone from the farm into the small town.

Mr. PARSONS. What are they doing in the small town?

Mr. BENNER. They are doing odd jobs, or are on W. P. A., or direct relief.

Mr. PARSONS. Has there been any noticeable migration from the rural areas into the industrial areas in Kansas on account of the new national-defense program?

Mr. BENNER. Into Wichita. However, the migration into Wichita has been greater, I think, from outside the State than intrastate, due to the fact that the building of aircraft requires very highly skilled persons, and there has been a migration of such persons from outside the State into Wichita.

Mr. PARSONS. So that there has been an outside migration into the State, effected because your rural people are not equipped for that type of work?

Mr. BENNER. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. Can you give the committee some idea of the character of these people: Age status, qualifications, and so on?

Mr. BENNER. The thing that we have found—we made a tentative survey of 94 of the 105 counties from our county welfare offices in the State—there seems to be pretty general agreement that the family unit was on the road today, and that the families were about four members each. They usually consist of a man and wife and two children.

Mr. PARSONS. That is the average?

Mr. BENNER. That is the average. And it is the opinion of the larger percentage of our county welfare directors that the number of families on the move is increasing. Interestingly enough, they were pretty much in agreement that the family heads and the single individuals were in the age group from 25 to 45. For the most part they were employable. And they were seeking the pot of gold at the end of the rainbow in the way of a job.

Mr. PARSONS. Has there been a surplus, do you think, of that labor pouring in from outside the State?

Mr. BENNER. No; I don't think there has been, in Kansas. It is only adding to the surplus. Kansas has a surplus of farm labor, there is no question about that, although facts are pretty hard to determine, but what happens is this: Kansas is the passing ground for this migrant population, from east to west and west to east. They are on their way through.

Mr. PARSONS. Would you say this surplus agricultural labor is due to labor-displacing machinery on the farm?

Mr. BENNER. Partly, and as has been stated before, the A. A. A. program has done considerable in driving people off of the farms.

Mr. PARSONS. From small units?

Mr. BENNER. Kansas wheat farming is big business.

Mr. PARSONS. You have some suitcase farming down there, do you?

Mr. BENNER. Yes; quite a bit of suitcase farming, and then large sections of land owned by individuals or corporations.

Mr. PARSONS. Let me ask you this: Do you think the mechanization of the farm has been a good thing for the farmer of America?

Mr. BENNER. It undoubtedly has been beneficial to the consumer. However, it has tended to exploit our natural resources. That is definitely one of the factors in the creation of the Dust Bowl and the breaking up of the buffalo sod because they were getting two and two and a half dollars per bushel for wheat during the war period and the pre-war period. They could use this land and get a very low acreage yield and still make an enormous profit. This land should never have been plowed.

Mr. PARSONS. What had it been used for before?

Mr. BENNER. Pasture and grassland. It is buffalo grass.

Mr. PARSONS. But it produced 10 or 15 bushels of wheat to the acre?

Mr. BENNER. And even 6 or 8 bushels at $2 a bushel would make considerable profit. The land started to blow when the rainfall decreased.

ADMINISTRATION OF RELIEF IN KANSAS

Mr. PARSONS. The committee would like to have you explain the relief policy of various Kansas counties.

Mr. BENNER. As far as migrants are concerned?

Mr. PARSONS. Yes; and including your own internal relief. Does the State appropriate money to the counties, or is it on a local option, handled by the local authorities?

Mr. BENNER. The Kansas welfare set-up is a coordinated welfare program. We administer the three Federal categories, and also general assistance or direct relief. The county welfare office in each county in the State does certification for the W. P. A. and for the C. C. C., so that the whole operation of welfare is in one unit. We also make investigations for F. S. A. grant cases. That is in Lincoln—we have the two regions, 7 and 12, Lincoln and Amarillo. As far as the financing of it is concerned, the State gets a direct appropriation from the legislature, and we reimburse the counties 30 percent of their welfare expenditures.

Mr. PARSONS. The State of Kansas does that?

Mr. BENNER. With the exception of some 20 counties in the State that we consider the emergency counties, where the relief and the situation in the county is pretty desperate, and in those instances we reimburse 60 percent. It is an attempt at equalization.

Mr. Parsons. What is the time limit in your settlement laws in Kansas?

Mr. Benner. There is sort of a conflict in our laws in Kansas. The State constitution provides that anyone who is in need within the county is the responsibility of the commissioners to meet that need.

Mr. Parsons. Whether a citizen of the State or not?

Mr. Benner. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. And what else do you have?

Mr Benner. In addition to that we have legal requirements. It takes a year to get residence in Kansas and a year to lose it.

Mr. Parsons. That is voting residence and settlement residence?

Mr. Benner. That is correct.

Mr. Parsons. In any county of the State he is entitled to be turned over to what you call the poor overseer?

Mr. Benner. Well, it is now the county welfare office.

Mr. Parsons. Is the constitution followed?

Mr. Benner. I think fairly generally.

Chairman Tolan. It is one of the few States where that has been done. Do you have one of your records there?

Mr. Benner. No, sir.

Mr. Parsons. Do you find any disposition of any large number of people to migrate back and forth just to be on the go and to see Kansas first and America first—on relief?

Mr. Benner. No; I don't know that we have any records to substantiate that point of view. Of course, we do have transients, and as far as our local offices are concerned, the amount of assistance that they give to the person who is not a known member of the community is a matter of meeting his emergency needs and passing him on to the next county or the next State. As far as an attempt to work out a constructive social plan and an attempt to rehabilitate that person, it is not done.

Mr. Parsons. It is just a matter of temporary relief for the persons?

Mr. Benner. It is just a temporary relief proposition, emergency medical care, or a meal, or something of that kind.

Mr. Parsons. You don't feel that the State of Kansas is being imposed on by these transients?

Mr. Benner. No; I don't think it is so much a matter of feeling of imposition; it is a feeling that Kansas as a State cannot do a great deal about the migrant problem, and that so much money for general assistance or general relief or transient relief has got to be raised; loans and assistance in many instances for the local person is pretty inadequate, and if they have any extra money, they should spend it on their own.

Mr. Parsons. That is natural for any State.

Mr. Benner. That is an understandable attitude.

Mr. Parsons. Now, have you any suggestions to make: Kansas has lost 82,000 people in the last 10 years. They went somewhere. A large number of these people, perhaps, might be tied to their soil, if they had had the right kind of encouragement, some aid and assistance, like the Farm Security Administration and others give. Have you any suggestions to make to this committee how we might help to hold these people in Kansas, to the farms, to the soil?

RECOMMENDATIONS

NATIONALLY UNIFORM RELIEF SYSTEM FOR PERSONS WITHOUT SETTLEMENT

Mr. **Benner**. Well, I have some general recommendations. The committee can use them for what they are worth. First of all, I think the committee needs to cut this problem in two, should consider it in two lights: One is the matter of a situation that exists today, and that is the care of the individual who is on the road. The care of the individual who is caught in some settlement dispute. Now, those individuals are desperately in need. It seems to me that it is a county, State, and Federal proposition, and some plan should be worked out for their care.

Mr. **Parsons**. You think, then, that this is a national problem?

Mr. **Benner**. Definitely.

Mr. **Parsons**. It transcends all county and State lines?

Mr. **Benner**. Definitely. I don't think there is any question about it.

Mr. **Parsons**. And that they are all citizens, as the chairman has said, of the 48 States, and he is just as much a citizen if he leaves Kansas and goes to California as he is if he leaves Illinois and goes to New York?

Mr. **Benner**. That is right.

Mr. **Parsons**. And it's a national problem?

Mr. **Benner**. And there are many, many people on the road that are desperately needing the bare necessities of life, which they are not receiving, and it seems to me that that is the immediate concern of this committee—to get something worked out whereby there will be care provided somewhat uniformly in the 48 States for the individual that is without a country or county or State.

PROMOTE SECURITY OF FARM TENURE

And secondly, it seems to me that the committee needs to consider a long-range program of the thing that you were speaking of: That is, to attempt to keep your people on the farms where they are now. Now, it seems to me that many of our American farmers are on submarginal soil at the present time, and with the creation of agricultural surpluses and so forth, and our foreign markets cut off, it is very doubtful to me if those individuals can make a living on that land. Now, as to what you can do with that land, the Government can buy it up, attempt to get it back in grass or trees or something, but it seems to me that the Government will have to assist and direct the movement of people in the future, and possibly put them on small acreages, and maybe subsidize their earnings from the land.

Mr. **Parsons**. In other words, give them definite information about where they might better their conditions and direct them?

Mr. **Benner**. And help them get there.

Mr. **Parsons**. And keep them from obtaining false information so that they don't gather in certain areas looking for a job and when they land there find there is no opportunity for employment?

Mr. **Benner**. Yes.

Mr. **Parsons**. But it isn't the adults that are the worse off today.

Mr. **Benner**. It is the children.

Mr. **Parsons**. Out of this 4,000,000 people on the road, at least a million children—not one-third of them obtaining anything like an education. We are building up a million or two nomads, in the habit of roughing it, without opportunity for education. That will present a very serious problem to us in the next generation.

Mr. **Benner**. Both socially and economically.

Mr. **Parsons**. Certainly. Probably more socially than economically, because these migrants that are now self-supporting are not getting their children educated.

Mr. **Benner**. No.

Mr. **Parsons**. And it is going to present a very serious social problem. Is there any other suggestion you would like to make?

FEDERAL GRANTS-IN-AID TO STATES

Mr. **Benner**. Well, as far as the help of the Federal Government is concerned, I have the feeling, and it is my recommendation, that it should be made on the basis of grants-in-aid to the States, administered through our agencies that are already set up, rather than setting up another transient bureau and a transient program such as we had in the early days of F. E. R. A. It seems to me that now we do have agencies in every county or every local subdivision in the State, and that we do have the machinery to handle this problem, and the thing that the committee wants to consider would be how to finance it from the standpoint of the Federal Government.

Mr. **Parsons**. Do you have the 6 to 8 weeks' study for your service worker, those who administer this relief in the State of Kansas—did you have that in 1933 or 1934?

Mr. **Benner**. Well, we attempted something in the way of a brief training, but I think we are beyond that point now, and I think almost every State is. We do have qualified people to administer such a program. We had to meet the emergency that arose, had to take the best personnel we could get, but it seems to me, from my knowledge, every State has gone ahead and continued to train people, and we do have agencies that could probably take over this responsibility, and what we are needing most is Federal financial participation. Now, that might come as another social-security feature that would not have to be set up separately, but what we are needing most in the care of migrants is money. The States can't do it, and certainly W. P. A. is not doing it. As far as the Federal contribution to the employable class is concerned, the transient is not benefiting through the W. P. A. program, because they are certifying their local people for the W. P. A. projects. Because of the sponsor's contribution, which is heavy, and which has to come out of local or State money, they want to use it for their local people.

Mr. PARSONS. I think that is all, Mr. Chairman. It is a very fine statement.

The CHAIRMAN. We want to get the fact home to the American people that the most of these people who migrate don't do it of their own will. They'd rather remain home, wouldn't they, on their farm?

Mr. BENNER. Yes.

The CHAIRMAN. But there are circumstances over which they have no control, and they are on the road by the thousands and the present proposition is what to do with them now that we have them.

Mr. BENNER. Yes.

The CHAIRMAN. That is all. Thank you very much.

We do have a supplemental report to add to the other report, which I will hand to the reporter.

(The statement of Mr. Benner, above referred to, and the supplemental report appear below.)

INTRODUCTORY

The State Department of Social Welfare of Kansas has undertaken a State-wide study of the migrant problem. The Kansas Labor Department, State Employment Service, Kansas Conference of Social Work, and the Salvation Army which, at the present time, is furnishing the major service offered in the State to the migrants, have all assisted in the planning of the study although the actual work is being done by the State department of Social Welfare.

The following statement is based on reports on the problem received from 94 of the 105 welfare directors in Kansas which is unquestionably a sufficiently large enough sample to enable us to speak significantly for the State.

The State Department is very glad to make this information available to this special House committee investigating the interstate migration of destitute citizens. All of our counties are now engaged in making a case study, which consists in filling out a schedule on each migrant that applies for service whether at a public or private agency. The welfare directors are directing the study which will continue during September, October, and November and the results are being compiled by our own statistical department and will be made available to the special House committee later.

Agencies and services serving migrants (94 counties reporting)

Service or agency:	*Number of counties using agency*	Service or agency:	*Number of counties using agency*
Welfare office	94	Rooming houses	4
Salvation Army	17	Pumping plant	1
Red Cross	31	Firehouse	1
County or city jail	[1] 60	Young Men's Christian Association	1
City marshal	[1] 23	County homes	3
American Legion	6	Light plant	1
Private agencies	7		
Hobo camps	2		

[1] 72 unduplicated counties.

SERVICES

1. *Welfare office.*—The welfare offices in Kansas report in almost every instance that they offer the migrant at least a minimum amount of assistance, but they hasten to add that it is given only when it is "absolutely imperative."[1] This usually means nothing for the able-bodied, unattached person, although it might mean emergency medical, a 15- or 25-cent meal if the applicant will do an hour's stint at the woodyard which "solves"[2] the problem for some counties as they do not report for work. Occasional lodging, limited to 1 night, is offered, although

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[1] Allen.

[2] Cloud.

this is usually a luxury permitted only to families and those who are not "accustomed to sleeping in jails or on park benches."[3] In some instances sufficient gasoline for the family to get over the county or State line is purchased. In general, the person who is on the move is definitely shown a "cold shoulder"[4] and thus given to understand that he is not wanted. He is urged to "move on." Most of the families travel in old "dilapidated cars," and expenditures are allowed for necessary repairs to prevent the family from becoming stranded. "A family of about 10 were driving through and broke down their car. It was an old model of car, as these cases usually have old cars, it was very expensive to repair. A deal was made whereby the county paid a few dollars to an automobile dealer so that he would trade cars with the transient."[5] Some counties show less feeling because they say, "All of our funds are needed for the care of persons who are our legal responsibility."[6]

2. *Salvation Army.*—The Salvation Army is furnishing some assistance to migrants in at least 16 counties in Kansas and perhaps a few more. This service usually consists of a meal or two and[7] overnight lodging, at which time they are expected to be "on their way." Occasionally some clothing and transportation are given, while those transients who become ill are referred to the welfare office.[8] The same persons are not accommodated oftener than once a month. The service rendered by this agency is probably the main one available in Kansas for migrants in lieu of anything that is better, and its importance should be judged accordingly. In the last 3 years the Salvation Army at Abilene is reported to have helped 580 men, 244 women, and 171 families,[9] and in Labette County it has assumed almost the "full percent of the care of the transients or migrants." The Salvation Army authority has indicated that their service is palliative in nature, intended to reduce begging on the streets only, and that they are wholeheartedly in favor of a more constructive approach to the problem,[10] but in the meantime they must give temporary assistance.

3. *Red Cross.*—Thirty-one counties have reported that the Red Cross was offering a small amount of service, usually available only to veterans. Minimum assistance, including "gas" for transportation, is offered in some instances. Their services are definitely limited by the small amount of funds that they have available.

4. *Jails.*—Out of the 94 counties that have reported so far it is extremely noteworthy that 60 counties stated that their jails were still being used for rooming houses. City marshals offer some form of service in 13 other counties, which probably means housing in the city jail. In only a few exceptional cases are these places equipped for the purposes that they are being used. Most generally the jails are used for the single, unattached persons, however, in some instances it is used to house families as well on occasion. Clark County, for instance, stated that it had "no way of caring for transients except to give them emergency help and when it is necessary for them to spend the night, they are allowed to sleep in the jail. A large family, of man, wife, and seven children was cared for in this way. They were given some gas and supper and breakfast in a local restaurant, as there was no other way to feed them." Another county (Lyon) says, "They have a women's ward in the jail so that it is possible to care for most any transient who would request this service" which is assuming a whole lot of our moving citizenry that if given a choice they would choose a jail as a place to spend the night before moving on or being "moved on." There is no evidence in the reports that the sheriffs or marshals are inviting the migrants to sleep in the jails in order that they might collect from the city or county for meals served, although it is possible that this might be true in some instances. It is impossible to estimate the number thus served every day, but it must be considerable. Kansas will have better information on this point later when the schedules for the special case study have been tabulated.

5. *Miscellaneous.*—While there were only two "hobo camps" reported, there are probably more than that in the State. The American Legion in six instances

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[3] McPherson.
[4] Sheridan.
[5] Decatur.
[6] Smith.
[7] Atchison.
[8] Bourbon.
[9] Dickinson.
[10] Brigadier De Bevoise, regional office, Salvation Army.

is reported as assisting a few veterans much the same as the Red Cross. A few private agencies are reported as offering some services ranging from referral in character to almost complete assumption of the migrant burden as in the case of Skyline Mission in Kansas City. There are a few other services reported, but they are assorted and scattered. Special mention, however, should be made of Tom Turner in Coffeyville. "Coffeyville relies on Tom Turner, who operates the 'Door of Hope' for the greater part of the services given to transients in cooperation with the police department. Transients register with the Coffeyville police then the men are given beds in the 'flop room.' Families are given a room in the 'Door of Hope.' Couples are given a room somewhere in the city. The following morning they are given coffee and doughnuts."[11] The police have registered 5,086 from September 1937 until August 24, 1940, which indicates with tragic vividness the extent of the migrant problem and need for greater service than is now being rendered.

The extent to which "begging" still exists is problematical although one director in a rural county (Wabaunsee) estimated that at least 1,000 meals are furnished in that manner in his county every year. City halls and fire houses are utilized for sleeping quarters in some instances. One director sums it up this way: "In these towns, back-door hand-outs take the place of relief orders, and sleeping quarters, if refused by the good citizenry, are confined to boxcars and the great out-of-doors."[12]

Volume of migrant service, as reported by county welfare directors, for both public and private agencies

Name of county	Volume of service by welfare office (actual and estimated)			Volume of private service (actual and estimated)				Average age, head (years)
	1938	1939	January–August 1940	Red Cross	Salvation Army	Jail	Other	
Allen	27	--------	10	--------	700	--------	--------	
Anderson	--------	15	10	--------	--------	--------	--------	
Atchison	8	15	10	--------	560	500	64	30 to 60.
Barber	49	68	19	--------	--------	--------	--------	35 to 60.
Bourbon	--------	15	12	400	4,000	10	[1] 5,000	Hobo camp.
Butler	--------	25	--------	69	373	--------	--------	26 to 39.
Chase	--------	10	8	--------	--------	--------	--------	
Chautauqua	--------	15	10	--------	--------	372	--------	20 to 40.
Cherokee	--------	27	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	30 to 55.
Cheyenne	--------	5	3	--------	--------	25	--------	45.
Clark	--------	12	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	Young.
Clay	--------	27	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	40.
Cloud	--------	30	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	18 to 40.
Coffey	--------	15	12	--------	--------	--------	--------	30 to 50.
Comanche	11	13	9	--------	--------	--------	--------	25 to 45.
Crawford	8	13	17	20	[2] 4,600	1,700	--------	
Decatur	18	13	12	--------	--------	--------	--------	45.
Dickinson	--------	17	--------	20	824	150	--------	25 to 50.
Doniphan	--------	32	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	21 to 45.
Douglas	152	214	139	15	--------	--------	--------	35 to 60.
Edwards	--------	12	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	
Elk	--------	15	10	--------	--------	--------	--------	
Ellis	40	23	9	--------	--------	--------	--------	
Ellsworth	[3] 711	71	24	--------	--------	--------	--------	
Finney	--------	117	80	--------	--------	--------	--------	20 to 40.
Ford	460	433	262	--------	--------	--------	--------	Few over 60.
Geary	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	Few under 25.
Gove	--------	20	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	
Graham	35	10	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	
Grant	4	3	2	--------	--------	--------	--------	25 to 45.
Gray	--------	30	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	

[1] Hobo camp (estimated).
[2] 4,600 for 1939 and 1,600 for 1940 thus far.
[3] Handled by city officials, paid for by welfare office.

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[11] Montgomery.
[12] Ottawa.

Volume of migrant service, as reported by county welfare directors, for both public and private agencies—Continued

Name of county	Volume of service by welfare office (actual and estimated)			Volume of private service (actual and estimated)				Average age, head (years)
	1938	1939	January–August 1940	Red Cross	Salvation Army	Jail	Other	
Greeley		7						
Greenwood								
Harvey		125						Some young.
Haskell	15	15	5					20 to 50.
Jackson		15	10					25 to 30.
Jefferson	10	9	4					20 to 55.
Jewell		20	17					
Johnson		44						
Kearny		20	15					Middle aged.
Kingman	19	15	13					Do.
Kiowa	50	58	32					
Labette							[4] 21,600	37.
Lane		15	10					23 to 47.
Leavenworth		72	48	144	525			34.
Lincoln	20	15	14					35 to 60.
Linn		2						
Logan								
Lyon		25					40	
Marion							[5] 180	
McPherson								
Meade	17	12	16					35.
Miami		5						
Mitchell		30	24					
Montgomery		17		2,830		288	[6] 1,700	Door of Hope, 20 to 40.
Morris		20						30 to 40.
Nemaha	17	15	19					20 to 40.
Neosho		12	8					25 to 40.
Ness		7	5					
Norton		82					8	30 to 40.
Osage		13						35 to 45.
Osborne	32	14	10					
Ottawa	117	60	44					20 to 45.
Pawnee	124	36	12					35 to 50.
Phillips	513	272	53					25 to 45.
Pottawatomie						700		
Pratt	82	26	22					
Rawlins	9	3	1					30 to 40.
Reno								
Republic		14	56					
Rice		15	12					Middle age.
Riley	51	41	26			1,200		34 to 37.
Rooks		1	5					
Rush		6						
Russell		26						
Scott	18	13	4					----
Sedgwick		360						
Seward	63	57	20					Mixed report.
Shawnee							[9] 1,827	
Sheridan	8	10	2					40.
Sherman		32					[8] 2,000	Young men.
Smith	6	2	1					16 to 32.
Stafford		33						
Stanton	4	5	2					18 to 46.
Stevens		10						23 to 50.
Sumner		53				400		Mixed report.
Thomas		47						
Wabaunsee							[7] 1,100	
Wallace		37						Few over 50.
Washington	15	14	17					25 to 45.
Wichita	6	4	0					
Wilson						48		
Wyandotte								25 to 45.

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[4] Estimated at 60 per day for M.K.T.-R.R.

[5] All services, including welfare office.

[6] Door of Hope, based on police register.

[7] Total of all services.

[8] Police estimate 2,000 pass through Goodland each year.

[9] All services, including 1,000 estimated furnished meals by private persons

VOLUME OF MIGRANCY

The opinions of the county welfare directors on volume of migrancy are based on actual applications and personal estimates, and while not exact and perhaps even subject to considerable error, are definitely indicative because these administrators have had much experience and personal contact with the problem.

Without question there is still a large number of persons of all ages and both sexes on the move. Bourbon County estimates the traffic at about 9,000; Crawford, 6,000; Shawnee, 1,800; Atchison, 1,100; Pottawatomie, 700, each in his respective county.

Labette County railroad officials[13] estimate that the 32 freight trains that run into this "hub" of the Missouri, Kansas, Texas Railroad carry about 200 migrants every 24 hours. The report estimates that 60 of these daily, need some form of service from the Missouri, Kansas, Texas Railroad. The report is careful to state that this number does not include those hitchhiking or riding in cars. Labette County then has from 20,000 to 30,000 moving through the county each year. The figures for these larger counties on the whole probably underestimate rather than overestimate the problem.

Not all of the counties have such a heavy request for help. Twenty of the ninety-four counties tending to fall in the class mentioned, 25 others find the migrant something of a problem, but not a particularly burdensome one, and the remaining 49 counties report that it is light or practically nonexistent. It should be borne in mind, however, that some of these latter counties are the very ones that have contributed more than their share to this migratory movement.

In all cases, however, the actual number that are assisted at the welfare office represent only a very small segment of the need. One county, for instance, reports 5,400 as in need of assistance, and in that county only 17 were aided by the welfare office in the last year.[14] Such a ratio in the counties in which the problem is heavier is not exceptional. The number of cases aided by the welfare offices during the 8 months of 1940 has varied from zero in Wichita County to 262 in Ford County. While the Red Cross, Salvation Army, county and city jails, and "hobo camps" offer some service, in the great majority of these cases it rarely exceeds a meal, temporary lodging, some "gas," and perhaps a few clothes. Briefly, the actual expenditures of the welfare office, and those of related agencies do no more than touch the problem. Much of the expenditure is in terms of "movement on," which is largely undirected and consequently helpful only in the sense that the local community that aided the movement has for the time being escaped further responsibility. One director wrote, "Because treatment is given on an emergency basis only, and no consistent plan worked out for the transient individuals or families, the program continues to be basically inadequate."[15] Another said, "Services available are very limited and the prevailing attitude seems to be to 'push them over the county or State line' as soon as possible and with as little expense as possible."[14]

CHARACTERISTICS OF MIGRANTS

Size of families.—A majority of the counties report that many families apply for assistance. They vary greatly, but the usual size is 4 persons. In 1 county[16] a family of 12 persons was reported, and families of 7 or 8 are often mentioned. The number of families on the road seems to be increasing, directors reporting that as many as 50 percent[17] of the migrant cases being families, although this percentage is probably exceptional. The children are of all ages, many of them are under 5, and some of them infants in arms. In an age tabulation submitted[18] 21 out of 90 persons were 10 years or under, 17 males and 14 females.

Average Age of Head or Single Person.—The reports were astonishingly in agreement that the heads of the families and the singles as well were middle-aged persons, principally between the ages of 25 and 45 years of age. There was almost no disagreement that the old person has almost left the road, due, they think, to the old-age programs. There are a few left, but not many. This fact, it seems, is extremely significant for if it is true the States from which these came are losing some of their most active age group, significantly enough many of the counties in Kansas are reporting that persons of these same ages are leaving their counties and are joining this mighty migrant stream.

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[13] Labette Report, p. 2.
[14] Montgomery.
[15] Atchison County report.
[16] Finney.
[17] Elk.
[18] Grant.

Employability.—Similarly there was also agreement that a large percentage, usually from 50 to 80 percent of the adults were considered employable. These migrants to a large degree are said to be on the road "in search of work." "As a class, they seem to be a rugged type, willing and used to undergoing hardships, children well behaved, and all looking for some mythical end of the rainbow where they will find a job." [19]

SEASONAL FLUCTUATIONS

Judging from the 94 county reports that have been received, the seasonal fluctuations of this problem are not particularly significant in most of the counties in Kansas. In 58 counties, it was viewed as of either slight or no importance. There is some demand for labor in a few agricultural pursuits, such as potato picking, work with sugar beets,[20] wheat generally over the western two-thirds of the State, apple picking,[21] and broomcorn,[22] but this need for labor is limited, with the exception of wheat, to a few counties. It is significant that the combine used in large-scale wheat farming has reduced the need for migratory labor in the wheat fields to a trickle. The defense industries, coal, oil, and various forms of construction, produce movements significant within themselves, although the most important thread running through the 94 reports is that the flow of migrants seems to go on, rain or shine, summer or winter, with special industries causing only temporary deflections in this tremendous population surge. The personal needs of these persons on the whole do not seem to wait on the seasons.

Only 14 of the counties reporting thought they had industries which were especially attractive to migrants. Locally they may be quite significant and may point to the need for further study and report, but in general they are not.

EMIGRATION

The attached map [23] showing range of population change between 1930 and 1940 (United States census), shows very clearly the effect of drought and erosion. The western part of the State, particularly the southwest, the far northwest, and the northern tier of counties, show the largest percentage of decrease in population. The western part of the State, particularly the southwest, was in what was known several years ago as the Dust Bowl. The five counties in which the largest cities are located all show an increase in population. In addition, the surrounding counties in central Kansas, in which there has been marked oil activity within the last 3 or 4 years, all show gains in population. Two of the counties show gains of more than 20 percent.

On the whole the counties which are largely agricultural, show the greatest drop in population. Industrial centers, such as the southeast, show that population has diminished, but not at the same rate as in the agricultural areas. It is possible, of course, that the smaller rate of decrease in the southeast is due to the fact that migration from that area has extended over a longer period of time. According to one county report, "migration of the younger employables began as early as 1920. However, the past 10 years has shown a larger number going to industrial centers." [24]

Causes or reasons for emigration as shown by county reports.—The following tabulation of county directors' statements of factors affecting emigration is based on 93 reports. Of the 93, 9 discussed movement into the State but did not discuss movement from the States. Eight reported "little" migration from their counties. Factors listed in the reports, together with their frequency of mention are:

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[19] Ottawa.
[20] Finney and Kearney Counties.
[21] Doniphan.
[22] Stevens.
[23] Map in three colors, held in committee files.
[24] Crawford County.

Drought and crop failures	48
Unemployment	31
Search for seasonal work	22
Mechanization of farms	20
Large land ownership and Government allotments	15
Withdrawal of industry or failure to expand industry	5
Uncertainty of Federal work programs	4
Movement to centers where employment in defense industries may be possible	4
Seeking health	4
Inadequate assistance	3
Replacement of workers by machines in industry	2
To join Army	2

Many of the topics should be more fully identified. A variety of reasons are included in "drought and crop failure." Among those listed are dust, erosion, poor crops, and others.

"Unemployment" should probably include three distinct overlapping groups. First, is that group of persons previously employed in industry or businesses who have lost employment. Second, is an increasing group who have been employed as farm laborers or who have drifted to farm labor work after losing farm enterprises. The third group is composed of young people never previously employed but of employable age.

Many of the county reports listed "mechanization of farms" and "large land ownership and Government allotments." The following example from one of the reports is indicative:

"This county in the past 7 years has rapidly ceased to be in the small farmer class. Farm after farm has had the improvements torn down and the acreage cultivated by a hired man. This procedure has reduced the landlords' taxes and at the same time he received the entire Agricultural Adjustment Administration or soil-conservation allotment. Former tenant farmers have been thrown out of a job and a place to live. People have been forced to move into the towns. In 1933, 1934, 1935, and 1936 we had many people living in the county receiving assistance. Now a very small percentage live outside a town. Low-income families formerly lived in an old house on a farm and raised a few chickens or pigs and had a cow. These buildings have been torn down to a great extent and even the pasture land plowed for wheat land. A result has been exorbitant rent in town for a very poor shack or house and very inadequate housing. This condition in some instances has forced emigration. The 1940 Census report on this county shows a decrease of over 900 persons. The assessors' report shows a decrease of around 500." [25]

It is probable that the counties listing "search for seasonal work" as a factor for emigration, might reasonably have listed the reason under "unemployment" or "search for employment." In this report we elected to note this factor separately since in our opinion the counties showing such a report emphasized the difference in seasonal emigration from permanent emigration. The counties which reported the greatest seasonal emigration are those which, in the main, are located nearest available seasonal work or those racial groups traditionally solicited for a type of work such as Mexicans for the beet fields, etc. Many county reports emphasize the value of efforts made by a low income group to at least partially finance their needs through seasonal work. However, several of the reports indicate that seasonal work in Kansas has declined in volume and in length of time. Two reports in particular express the opinion that seasonal work has diminished mainly due to the extensive use of power machinery.[26]

The population movements undoubtedly represent an effort to adjust resources and economic conditions to the present situation.

"At this time it appears very doubtful if the migration from this county can be checked to any great extent. The farms are becoming fewer and larger because a person without financial backing has been unable to stay on the farm. By the use of power machinery the land that was probably farmed by six or seven farmers can now be farmed just as easily, and perhaps better, by one than by several individual persons. From the present trend of applications for assistance received by the welfare office in this county, it appears that there is still a surplus of labor here. It is difficult to judge, however, just how much labor would be required in this area if crops would return to normal and if business could pick up to the normal amount. Roughly speaking, there is about one-third of the population of this county that receives assistance in one form or another, whether it is Civilian Conservation Corps, National Youth Administration, Farm Security Administration, or direct relief from the county. Undoubtedly a great number of these persons will try to secure employment elsewhere and the population will no doubt continue to decline until normal conditions at least prevail. It does not appear likely there will be any increase in population in this area because, as stated before, there seems to be more laborers available than is necessary except during seasonal employment. Even the seasonal employment is much less than it has been in the past, due to the extensive use of power machinery."[27]

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[25] Pratt County.

[26] Decatur and Pratt Counties.

"About one-fifth of our people have migrated because of the dust storms and drought. Of this number about 75 percent have gone to either Washington, Oregon, Idaho, or California; some few have gone back to their original homes in Missouri, one family to Georgia, and a small number have moved to Colorado. Among this number were some of our best farmers, who have gone in search of a place where they can make a living on a farm.

"The cause behind this is the plowing of the native buffalo sod and planting the land to wheat. In many cases this was done by 'suitcase' farmers, who operated from a base in eastern or central Kansas. They did not put improvements on the farms, not even drilling a well. After raising one or two good wheat crops the land failed to produce. For several years they kept on cultivating the land (with a one-way plow), hoping that this would be the year for a good crop, until the top of the ground was a fine powdery silt. When the land began to blow these men went back to their homes and left the native farmers to live in the dust clouds that they had caused. With the splendid cooperation of the Government agencies and the conscientious work of the farmers the land is being controlled and with a couple of good crop years our story will be filled with statistics about immigration instead of emigration."[28]

Age range.—In only 33 of the reports did the county directors specifically estimate age of persons emigrating. In nearly all of the remainder the age question is implied by such general statements as employable and family groups with young children.

The sample statement of age includes the following definitions: 18 to 45; 20 to 62, an average of 37; 20 to 45; 23 to 55; an average of 35 and young married couples.

The minimum age shown on the 33 reports mentioned above is 18; the maximum is 62. Many of the reports include a statement to the effect that few aged persons are moving out except in the infrequent cases of persons going to live with relatives, etc. Apparently the movement generally is of employables seeking employment opportunities.

The most alarming fact about emigrants from the county is as follows: "It is the younger group, including the younger families who are emigrating. This is very conclusively shown by the cases which this office has knowledge of. The reason given by the majority of these families emigrating who are not engaged in agriculture is to seek industrial employment in larger industrial areas."[29]

"Other families besides those registered with the agency have left the county but we could give no accurate idea of the number. A survey of the known families leaving indicates the average age would be in the 30's. Poor crop conditions and lack of work opportunities were the reasons in practically all cases. Few left in search for employment on the seasonal basis but to make their home elsewhere. It is believed standards of assistance had little to do with emigration. Most families left because they did not like public assistance, however adequate, and sought to be self-supporting. Many of the clients leaving were in the younger age group or those who could do skilled work that was not available locally because years of continued crop failure had affected business requiring clerical or skilled workers."[30]

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[27] Decatur County.
[28] Kearny County.
[29] Ellsworth County.
[30] Haskell County.

It is obvious from the above excerpts that most of the county reports reveal emigration of families or family groups more frequently than emigration of single persons. The county reports also substantiate population changes as revealed on the attached map, and show that the heaviest emigration is from the farming areas. The lightest is in the areas in which new business opportunities have been offered such as the central state oil development area. It is significant that some of the counties in the south and southeast from which the oil industry has withdrawn, report a considerable movement to the central part of the state in which there is heavy production. The largest movement of single young persons is reported from the southeast industrial area, however, it is possible that the county welfare offices would not be fully aware of this latter movement.

Destination.—The counties reporting mentioned intrastate migration on a seasonal basis or on an industrial basis, but are not as specific about destination as they are about those emigrating from the State.

The majority of reports indicate that the largest trend is toward the West and the Northwest. One of the county reports indicates that since 1935, 136 of the 500 families registered with the public-welfare agency have left the county. The director knows destination of 99 of the 136 families. It is as follows:[31]

To other counties in the State	42	Missouri	2
Colorado	16	Arizona	1
California	10	Illinois	1
Canada	9	Indiana	1
Washington	5	Texas	2
Oklahoma	5		
Idaho	5		99

Only one report gives a specific reason for a specific migration.

"We know that in 1935 and 1936 a number of farm families who had experienced crop failures went to Washington hoping to establish themselves on farms there. A real estate agent here, representing some company in Bellingham, Wash., was responsible for influencing many of these people to go."[32]

One county shows the following table and shows destination of families, single men, and youths:[33]

	Far West	South	East	North
Families	95	10	6	9
Single men	34	4	6	6
Youths	51	10	20	19

Many of the reports indicate that emigration for many persons is a hazardous thing; but while some of them go at the request or assistance of relatives and friends, others apparently go in desperation, seeking opportunity. Any factors that can be developed for planning of necessary movements should be helpful.

Recommendations made by 78 Kansas county welfare directors regarding the migrant problem[1]

	Number in favor
1. Both the State and the Federal Government should participate financially	51
2. Uniform settlement regulations among the States are needed	47
3. The Work Projects Administration or similar work program should be expanded	19
4. Public agencies should educate persons on the rolls regarding the dangers of migrancy	9
5. Migrants should register before starting to travel	6
6. Proper control requires more stringent settlement regulations	15
7. Favor interstate or regional agreements with respect to settlement regulations	3

[1] 15 counties out of the 94 reporting had no recommendations to offer.

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[31] Haskell County.
[32] Finney County.
[33] Ottawa County.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In their recommendations the county welfare directors reveal quite candidly their present thoughts and feelings on the problem of the migrant. It is apparent in the tabulation that a large majority felt that the needs of the migrant were too great for them to face locally, and all that they could do locally, in spite of the best of intentions, under the prevailing circumstances, was to "pass them on," and that as quickly as possible. The following statement of one director has been selected as typical: "Public sentiment expects assistance to be given to residents of the county rather than to transients; therefore many are satisfied with our present program. However, we who work with the transients realize that more time, effort, and money should be spent on these families; that they should be encouraged to 'settle down' and make homes for their children and see that they are educated. We feel this can be brought about only if the Federal and State Governments finance the program. As long as counties have to participate, adequate services will not be given. We feel the policy of most counties is to give them sufficient gas and oil to take them to the next county seat, where they will again make a new application and perhaps be given enough gas to go another 50 or 100 miles. Of course, this is not welfare, and we realize that fact. *We would much rather make a study of the transient, try to locate relatives, and rehabilitate them; however, that takes time and money, which most counties do not have at the present time.*"[94]

The tabulations on 94 counties, 15 of these not voicing an opinion, a majority favor some form of uniform settlement laws and some financial assistance from the Federal Government and increased assistance from the State government; otherwise they believe any sound treatment plan would not be undertaken, let alone be carried out. Nineteen of the counties favored a larger work program, which they thought would aid materially in stemming the tide which program should include additional opportunities for youth. Vocational education for workers was touched upon only briefly, although it might be inferred that most all counties would vote favorably, judging from their other recommendations. There were some recommendations that the settlement laws should be made more stringent, but most of the directors seemed to realize the futility of forcing persons to stay where they had no desire to be. It may be said in conclusion that if the Federal and State Governments fail in their responsibilities that the migrants will be given a "cold shoulder" by our local officers, and useless expenditures and useless, even senseless, movements will continue.

Statistical form for study of transients

1. Date of application:____
2. Color: W__ N__ O__. 3. Birthplace:______________________________
4. Social Security Number:______________________________________
5. Name of County:____
6. Name of Agency:____
7. War Veteran: Yes________ No________ 8. Citizen: Yes________ No________

9 Name	Age	Sex	Relation to head Head	Education	Months in school last year (school age)
(a)					
(b)					
(c)					
(d)					
(e)					

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[94] Stafford County. Italics ours.

10. Social status of head: Married__ Single__ Divorced__ Separated__ Widow__ Widower__.
11. Applicant's home: City____________________________ State_______________
12. Date left home last time____
13. Time continuous residence at home______________________________________ (Years and months)
14. Reasons given for leaving home____
____
15. Ultimate destination: City________________________ State_______________
16. Reasons given for destination____
____
17. Mode of travel: Auto__ Hitchhiking__ Train__ Other_____________________ (Check one) (Specify)
18. Travel route through Kansas____
19. Auto: ____
Make Model Type License No.
20. Ever stay at some transient camp: Yes__ No__.
21. Location of camp__________________________When entered________________
22. Last private job of 30 days or more duration: (Check Head)
If farm worker: Operator__ Tenant__ Labor__ Other_________________________ (Specify)
If not farm worker: Professional__ Clerical__ Sales__.
Service job__ Skilled__ Unskilled__ Other_________________________________ (Specify)
23. Date the job ended______________________State worked in_______________
24. Usual occupation:____ (Be as specific as possible)
25. Worked on Work Project Administration: Yes__ No__ State______________
26. Served in Civilian Conservation Corps: Yes__ No__ State enrolled in_________
27. Worked on National Youth Administration: Yes__ No__ State______________
28. Request of applicant____
____
____
29. Service rendered____ (Specify type, cost, and by whom given)
____
____
30. Other assistance applicant received in Kansas:
Agency Location Service
____

31. Health of individual members of family:

Write name or use line identification letter	Nature of health problem	Treatment received on road previous to arrival in this county	Treatment given in this county

32. Remarks of interviewer: Suggestions:

a. Significant travel history;
b. Employment information on persons other than head;
c. Questionable validity of any information given;
d. Previous contacts of agency with case;
e. Comments, descriptions, or impressions of the interviewer.

____
____

33. Signature of interviewer ______________ Date completed ____________

A STATEMENT ON MIGRATION AS IT AFFECTS THE KANSAS DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ASSISTANCE, BY RALPH H. FURST, REPRESENTATIVE OF THE KANSAS BUREAU OF PUBLIC ASSISTANCE AND CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON TRANSIENCY OF THE KANSAS CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK

SERVICES

1. *Welfare office.*—The county welfare offices in almost every instance report that they offer at least a small amount of assistance, although the directors are very frank to state that they encourage the migrants to move on, or that they refuse assistance unless it is deemed, as one director stated, "absolutely imperative,"[1] which usually means only emergency medical care, perhaps a meal, occasional lodging, and in some instances sufficient gasoline for the family to get over the county line.

2. *Salvation Army.*—The Salvation Army is furnishing some assistance in at least 16 counties in Kansas. It usually consists of a meal or two and one night's lodging. This service of the Salvation Army comprises probably the main one that is offered at present in Kansas to the migrants. It undoubtedly reaches the largest number of these persons.

3. *County jail.*—Out of the 86 counties that have reported so far it is extremely noteworthy that 55 counties stated that their jails were still being used for rooming purposes. City marshals offer some form of service in at least 13 other counties, which probably means housing in the city jail. Very few of the jails are reported as being equipped for the purposes that they are being used. Almost invariably the director stated that this service is available for one night only and after that the migrant must move on.

4. *Red Cross.*—Twenty-nine counties have reported that the Red Cross was offering a small amount of service usually available only to veterans. Minimum assistance including gas for transportation is offered in some instances.

5. *Miscellaneous.*—Two hobo camps were reported, although there are probably more than that number within the State. The American Legion is assisting a few veterans. One family welfare agency was reported as giving some food. The extent to which begging still exists is problematical, although one director in a rural county estimated that at least 1,000 meals are furnished in that manner in his county[2] every year. City halls and fire houses are utilized for sleeping quarters in some instances. One director sums it up this way: "In these towns, back-door hand-outs take the place of relief orders, and sleeping quarters, if refused by the good citizenry, are confined to box cars and the great out of doors."[3]

SEASONAL FLUCTUATIONS

Judging from the 86 county reports that have been received, the seasonal fluctuations of this problem are not particularly significant in most of the counties in Kansas. There is some demand for labor in a few agricultural pursuits, potatoes, sugar beets, wheat, apples, but this need is limited, with the exception of wheat, to a few counties. The defense industries, coal, oil, and various forms of construction, produce movements, although the most important thread running through the reports is that the flow of migrants seems to go on, rain or shine, winter or summer, special industries causing only temporary deflections in this tremendous population surge. The personal needs of these persons on the whole do not seem to wait on the seasons. Only 14 counties out of the 86 reporting thought that they had industries which were especially attractive to migrants. Locally they may be quite significant, but in general they are not. It is significant to note that the combine and large-scale wheat farming has reduced the need for labor in the wheat fields to a trickle.

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[1] Allen County.

[2] Wabaunsee County.

[3] Ottawa County.

EMIGRATION

The recent publication of the preliminary report of the 1940 Census has focused attention of Kansas on the State's loss in population. Since 1930 the State's population has dropped 4.37 percent, or 82,184. The rate of decrease ranges from more than 25 percent in the area formerly known as the Dust Bowl, to slight losses and some gains in the central part of the State. These figures denoting population changes assume considerable significance when analyzed in the light of reports of emigration submitted by county directors of social welfare. These reports which are of a general nature cover the following salient points:

1. *Period of emigration.*—More than half of the 86 counties reporting indicate that continuing migration from the State covered a period of from 3 to 10 years, or in a few instances a longer period, to the present. About 15 of the counties reported that emigration was heaviest during the summer months or during the time that seasonal employment was available in neighboring localities or neighboring States.

2. *Family groups and youth.*—The counties reported two types of emigration, first that of family groups and, second, that of youth. Some of the reports included a statement of population change based on the 1940 and 1930 census reports. In addition, many of the county directors attempted to analyze and define emigration in terms of county relief registration. While the latter analysis excluded persons not known to relief agencies, the State considers the figure valuable for a study of potential destitution among migrants.

For instance, Cheyenne County in the extreme northwest with a present population of 6,200 reports that during the last 5 years 50 families, which formerly were registered with the county relief agency, have left the county. Doniphan County, in the extreme northeast, with a present population of approximately 13,000, reports that only 10 or 12 families known at one time to the county agency, have left the county. Morton County, in the extreme southwest, where soil has been seriously eroded, shows about 47 percent drop in population in the last 10 years. Southeast Kansas, in which coal, lead, and zinc mines are located, and in which mining operations have declined in the last 10 years, shows an average drop in population of approximately 5 percent. However, the counties in that area report that young men are leaving the area to seek work in industrial centers which condition is particularly evident among families in which the chief employment has been mining.

3. *Age range.*—The usual age range of persons emigrating from the State is universally reported to be the same, that is, ranging from 20 to 25 as a minimum to 45 to 55 as a maximum. The average age of persons emigrating seems to be between 25 and 40 years. Some of the reports were not specific as to age but included such statements as: "Young or early middle-aged employables," "Young married couples," etc.

4. *Destination.*—Destination of Kansas emigrants varies from other localities in Kansas to the far western States, to the eastern industrial centers. The county welfare offices report a heavier migration to California, Idaho, Utah, Washington, Oregon, than to other States.

5. *Reasons for emigration.*—The reasons for emigration in the order of their significance are:

1. Drought and soil erosion.
2. Unemployment.
3. Mechanized farming and large-scale ownership.
4. Lack of industrial expansion.
5. Withdrawal of industry (such as gas or oil) or removal to other locations to follow the same industry.
6. Seeking better wages or opportunities promised by relatives and friends.

In addition various other reasons were given such as: Uncertainty of work programs; search for farmhand elsewhere; search for positions in national-defense industries.

Only two counties in the State reporting suggested that low assistance levels contributed to emigration, although this may be open to question.

The first three causes of emigration listed cover a wide variety of situations from areas in the State affected by 6 or 7 years' continuous drought and erosion to areas affected by only periodic drought. Unemployment covers the group affected by loss of employment and in addition covers a group forced to change employment. The latter usually included tenant farmers forced off the land. Mechanized farming and large scale ownership are thought to be largely responsible for fundamental changes in economic opportunity for unskilled laborers and for small farmers. The Agricultural Adjustment Administration program, according to county reports, is generally thought to be responsible for increasingly large-scale ownership of land and resultant migration.

In summary, a comparison of those migrating from the State to those passing through or traveling within the State, shows almost complete similarity as to age range, reasons for migration, and destinations.

Volume of migrancy.—The opinions of the county directors on volume of migrancy are based on actual applications and personal estimates, while not exact and perhaps subject to considerable error, are definitely indicative because they have had experience and personal contact with the problem. Without question there is still a large number of persons of all ages and both sexes that are on the move. Bourbon County estimates the traffic at about 9,000 per year; Crawford County, 6,000; Atchison, 1,560; and Shawnee, 1,800; Pottawatomie, 700; each in his respective county. The figures on the whole probably underestimate rather than overestimate the problem. Not all of the counties have such a heavy request for help, 19 of the 86 counties tending to fall in the class mentioned, 25 counties find the migrant something of a problem but not a burdensome one, and the remaining 42 counties report that it is light or practically nonexistent.

In all cases, however, the actual number that are assisted at the welfare offices represents only a very small segment of the need. For instance, one county reports 5,400 as in need of assistance, and in that county only 17 were aided by the welfare office in the last year.[4] Such a ratio in the counties in which the problem is heaviest is not exceptional. The number of cases aided by the welfare office during the first 8 months of 1940 has varied from none in 1 county to 262 in another. Most any other aid that is furnished by other agencies rarely exceeds a meal, temporary lodging, some "gas," and, perhaps a few clothes. Briefly, the actual expenditures of the welfare office, and those of related agencies, do no more than touch the problem. Much of the expenditure is in terms of "movement on," which is largely undirected and consequently helpful only in the sense that the local community that aided the movement has for the time being escaped further responsibility. One director wrote, "Services available are very limited and the prevailing attitude seems to be to 'push them over the county or State line' as soon as possible, and with as little expense as possible."[5]

CHARACTERISTICS OF MIGRANTS

Size of families.—Many counties report that many families apply for assistance. They vary in size from 3 to 11. The average size is usually 4 persons. The number of families seems to be increasing, directors reporting that as many as 50 percent of the migrant cases being families although this percentage is probably exceptional. The children are of all ages, many under 5 and some of them infants in arms.

Average age of head.—The reports were astonishingly in agreement that the heads of the families and the singles as well were middle-aged persons principally between 25 and 45 years of age. There was almost no disagreement that the old person has almost left the road due, they think, to the old-age programs. There are a few left but not many. This, it seems, is extremely significant.

Employability.—There was also agreement that a large percentage, usually from 50 percent to 80 percent of the adults, were considered employable. These migrants, to a large degree, are said to be on the road in search of work. "As a class they seem to be a rugged type, willing and used to undergoing hardships, children well behaved, and all looking for some mythical end of the rainbow where they will find a job."[6]

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[4] Barbour.

[5] Montgomery.

[6] Ottawa.

Recommendations.—The directors were asked for their recommendations in order to determine their present feelings and thoughts on the subject. A large majority frankly stated that the needs of the migrants were too great for them to face locally and all they could do under the circumstances was to "pass them on" and that as quickly as possible. While the tabulations are not complete on this, a large majority favor some form of uniform settlement laws and some financial assistance from the Federal Government and increased assistance from the State governments; otherwise they believe any sound treatment plan could not be undertaken, let alone be carried out. A large majority indicated that a larger work program would aid materially in stemming the tide, which program should include more opportunities for youth as well as the older workers. There were some recommendations that the settlement laws be made more stringent, but the most of the directors seemed to realize the futility of forcing persons to stay where they have no desire to be. Many directors admitted that they were not doing anything about the problem. One director said, "The outstanding reason for undesirable treatment of transients seems to be unwillingness to part with local money to help a person that belongs to some other county or State."[7]

(The following statement was received subsequent to the hearing and accepted for the record:)

PRELIMINARY REPORT OF THE CASE STUDY OF MIGRANTS IN KANSAS

Prepared by State Department of Social Welfare of Kansas

Introduction.—The State Department of Social Welfare of Kansas, as it indicated earlier to the Special House Committee Investigating the Interstate Migration of Destitute Citizens, undertook the supervision of a State-wide case study of the migrant problem in Kansas during the 3-month period beginning September 1, 1940, and ending November 30, 1940. A special schedule was prepared, a copy of which is enclosed, for the use of all interviewers whether in public or private agencies. The study in the counties was placed under the supervision of the county directors who in many cases were able to get excellent cooperation from other agencies within the counties giving service in one form or another to the moving population. While coverage in all of the counties is admittedly by no means complete and while the total volume of migrancy still remains in doubt, the schedules prepared and submitted are in sufficient number to base some valid conclusions regarding the characteristics of the population that is "on the march."

Coverage.—During the 3-month period, September to November, inclusive, approximately 2,700 schedules have been received by the State Department of Social Welfare from the various agencies participating. Inasmuch as the special House committee requested that a report on the study be made by December 10, 1940, it was necessary to make a preliminary report based on 1,716 schedules filled in for applicants who had applied for assistance not later than November 2, 1940. A final report will be made later covering the entire period.

Duplications.—Of the 1,716 applications included in the preliminary report, it was found that 373 applicants, or 28 percent of the sample, made application for service more than once as they moved across the State. Considering this fact then, there were 1,343 unduplicated applicants represented in the total.

Participation.—Of the 105 counties within the State of Kansas, 75 welfare offices sent in schedules, 17 police departments, and 5 other public agencies, including city halls and fire houses. Among the private agencies participating were 16 Salvation Army corps, 12 Red Cross chapters, and 1 Provident Association which is located in Topeka in Shawnee County. The proportion of the applicants interviewed by these agencies is revealed in table I:

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[7] Scott.

TABLE I.—*Number and percent of applications by agencies Sept. 1 to Nov. 2, 1940*

Agency	Number	Percent
Total	1,716	100.0
Total public agencies	778	45.3
Welfare office	476	27.7
Police department	294	17.1
Other	8	.5
Total private agencies	930	54.2
Salvation Army	782	45.6
Red Cross	89	5.2
Other	59	3.4
Unknown	8	.5

Table II presents the age and sex of both the applicants and other members of the family groups.

TABLE II.—*Age and sex of applicants and other members of family groups*

Age groups	All members			Applicants			Other members		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	1,814	1,464	350	1,343	1,298	45	471	166	305
	Percent distribution								
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Under 1 year	1	1	4	--------	--------	--------	4	4	4
Under 5 years	5	4	13	--------	--------	--------	19	27	14
5 to 9 years	3	2	8	--------	--------	--------	13	20	9
10 to 14 years	3	2	7	(1)	(1)	--------	11	18	8
15 to 19 years	10	9	11	9	9	9	12	13	12
20 to 24 years	11	12	12	12	12	9	10	7	12
25 to 34 years	19	19	19	21	21	20	15	7	19
35 to 44 years	20	21	12	24	24	31	7	2	9
45 to 54 years	13	14	7	15	15	7	5	1	7
55 to 64 years	9	11	4	12	12	6	2	--------	4
65 and over	4	4	2	5	5	11	1	1	1
Unknown	3	2	5	2	2	7	5	4	5

[1] Less than 0.5 percent

It will be noted that the bulk or 45 percent of the applicants were from 25 to 45 years of age. Most of the applicants, or 87 percent, were male. Of the total of 471 other persons represented beside the applicants, 305 were female of which approximately 50 percent were under 20 years of age. Eleven percent, or 200 of the total persons represented were children under 15 years of age, and of this number 1 percent, or 18, were infants under 1 year of age. Inasmuch as only 4 percent, or 72 persons, were known to be 65 and over it may safely be concluded that the aged migrant is dwindling in numbers and tending to become a thing of the past. The normal conclusion would be that the most of them have settled down and are receiving old-age assistance in their places of residence where they are eligible for assistance.

TABLE III.—*Size and composition of transient groups*

Size	Total	Single	Normal families					Broken families				
			Total normal	Husband and wife	Husband, wife, and children	Normal with others		Total broken	Man and children	Woman and children	Broken with relatives	Broken with other
						Related	Unrelated					
Total	1,343	1,142	167	67	85	11	4	34	2	22	7	3
	Percent distribution											
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	(1)	100	(1)	100	(1)	(1)
1 person	85	100	------	------	------	------	(1)	------	(1)	------	(1)	(1)
2 persons	7	(2)	40	100	------	------	(1)	50	(1)	50	(1)	(1)
3 persons	4	------	23	------	38	46	(1)	23	(1)	27	(1)	(1)
4 persons	2	(2)	14	------	25	18	(1)	15	(1)	14	(1)	(1)
5 persons	1	------	10	------	18	9	(1)	9	(1)	5	(1)	(1)
6 persons	1	------	8	------	13	18	(1)	------	(1)	------	(1)	(1)
7 persons	(2)	------	2	------	3	------	(1)	------	(1)	------	(1)	(1)
8 persons	(2)	------	1	------	1	9	(1)	3	(1)	4	(1)	(1)
9 persons	(2)	------	1	------	2	------	(1)	------	(1)	------	(1)	(1)
10 persons	(2)	------	1	------	------	------	(1)	------	(1)	------	(1)	(1)

[1] Percent not calculated on a base of fewer than 10.

[2] Less than 0.5 percent.

Table III shows the size and composition of the migrant families or groups. Most of the migrants, 1,142, or 85 percent, were traveling alone. This, of course, does not necessarily mean that they were unmarried but that they were either single, or that their families were being cared for elsewhere, Further statistical analysis will verify the extent to which this is true and this fact will be covered in the final report to be prepared later. There were 201 families represented, 167 normal which included a husband, wife, and possibly children, while there were 34 families which deviated from this norm and were considered as broken. Twenty-six of these were mothers with children under 16 years of age as table VII will show. Table III shows that 40 percent of the normal families are families of 2 persons, 23 percent of 3 persons, and the rest, or 37 percent, are families consisting of 4 or more persons. Since most of the cases were singles or normal families it is clearly seen that there were few so-called "Joad" families represented in the sample.

Table IV considers two facts, period of continuous residence the applicant had spent at what he called "his home" and his statement of the period of time he had been away from home.

TABLE IV.—*Duration of continuous residence at home and length of time away from home*

Residence athome	Total number	Length of time away from home and percent distribution												
		Total	Under 6 months	6 months and under 1 year	1 and under 2 years	2 and under 3 years	3 and under 4 years	4 and under 5 years	5 and under 10 years	10 and under 15 years	15 and under 20 years	20 and under 25 years	25 years and over	Unknown
Under 6 months	65	100	71	15	5	3	2	2	1	----	----	----	----	1
6 months and under 1 year	23	100	74	26	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
1 and under 2 years	46	100	76	9	5	----	2	2	2	2	----	----	2	----
2 and under 3 years	67	100	70	16	5	5	----	----	----	1	----	----	----	3
3 and under 4 years	47	100	64	6	9	4	11	----	----	2	----	----	----	4
4 and under 5 years	33	100	76	15	3	----	3	----	----	----	----	----	3	----
5 and under 10 years	123	100	71	11	4	6	4	1	2	----	----	----	----	1
10 and under 20 years	268	100	67	7	4	3	4	1	3	5	3	1	2	(1)
20 and under 30 years	213	100	55	10	7	6	3	3	4	2	3	3	3	1
30 and under 40 years	108	100	51	10	13	4	4	3	3	3	2	2	4	1
40 and under 50 years	58	100	59	15	12	2	2	3	5	2	----	----	----	----
50 years and over	38	100	45	13	21	3	8	----	8	----	----	----	2	----
Unknown	254	100	25	7	1	1	(1)	3	2	2	(1)	2	2	55
Total	1,343	100	56	10	6	3	3	2	3	2	1	1	2	11

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(1) Less than 0.5 percent.

The table tends to show the rather startling fact that the so-called old-stable settlers that have gone on the road in recent years tend to stay away from their home site longer than those that have a less lengthy tenure in any one particular location. It will be noted for instance that of the group that said they had been home 6 months and under 1 year, none of them had been on the road longer than 1 year, whereas in the case of the group that claimed residence at home of 30 and under 40 years, 25 percent had been away from home for more than 1 year with 14 percent of those being away more than 5 years. The real meaning of this table can only be established by a rather detailed study of the individual schedules involved. This information will be made available in the final report. For the present the table indicates that "youth" tends to supplant "age" in employment and that the older persons who were first displaced by the 1929 stock-market collapse and ensuing effects are having a proportionately harder time adjusting than the younger ones. However, in general, it should be noted that of all groups considered only a relatively insignificant number have been on the road longer than 2 years.

Table V lists the reasons the migrants gave for leaving home on the one hand as opposed to the reasons given for their destination on the other.

Table V.—*Reason given for leaving home and reason for destination*

Reason for leaving	Total	Reason for destination												
		Economic betterment							Personal objectives					
		Promise of work	Hoped to find work	Had arranged for farm	Hoped to open business	Help from relatives or friends	Relief	Miscellaneous economic reasons	Healthful climate or medical care	To rejoin relatives		Sentiment	Miscellaneous personal	Unknown
										Going home	To visit			
A. Economic distress:														
Unemployment	824	69	447	----	----	8	7	5	13	188	12	1	29	45
Inadequate earnings	7	1	2	----	----	----	----	----	----	2	----	----	1	1
Business failure	1	----	1	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Inadequate relief	4	1	2	----	1	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Unwilling to be on relief	5	1	3	----	----	----	----	1	----	----	----	----	----	----
Evicted from rented or owned home	2	----	1	----	----	----	----	----	1	----	----	----	----	----
Relatives unable to continue support	1	----	1	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Other economic reasons	9	----	1	----	----	----	----	1	----	4	----	----	1	2
B. Personal distress:														
Ill health	48	----	6	----	----	1	----	----	26	11	1	----	----	3
Domestic difficulties	43	2	19	----	----	1	1	1	1	7	----	----	4	7
Disliked separation from relatives or friends	7	2	1	----	----	----	----	----	----	3	----	----	----	1
Death of family or friends	26	2	10	----	----	1	----	----	1	6	1	----	2	3
Other personal	10	----	3	----	----	----	----	----	----	5	----	----	----	2
C. Not in distress:														
Job required travel	53	16	15	----	----	----	----	3	1	11	2	----	3	2
To visit	71	6	8	----	----	1	----	----	----	35	12	----	3	6
Wanted to travel	16	1	3	----	----	----	----	2	4	----	2	----	4	----
Roamers	11	----	4	----	----	----	----	1	1	1	2	----	2	----
D. Other	64	3	14	1	----	----	2	2	1	22	2	3	11	3
E. Unknown	141	3	22	----	----	----	----	1	2	5	1	----	6	101
Total	1,343	107	563	1	1	12	10	17	51	300	35	4	66	176

The most significant fact regarding this table is the fact that nearly 65 percent of the applicants were migrating because they were in economic distress. Of the total of 1,343 applicants 824 stated in a general way that "unemployment" was the principle reason for their movement. Of this number nearly 55 percent, or 447, appeared to be quite uncertain as to where "work" could be found. This group stated that, "they hoped to find work." A smaller number, 69, or 8 percent, stated that they at least had a "promise of work." Another significant thing about this table is that quite a sizable number, 300, were going home. The implication from the table is that the movement is not only away from home searching for a "job" but movement in the reverse, either meaning they had completed the work and were returning, or that they had failed, and were returning because they must. Out of the 1,343 only 2 had such definite objectives as "had arranged for a farm," or "hoped to open a business." Health did not appear as being a particular significant reason for movement although this might be an oversight on the part of the applicant or interviewer or both. This particular phase of the problem no doubt calls for special study and it is the intention of the special committee of the Kansas Conference of Social Work to go into some of these special problems more in detail. Special committee assignments have been made in this connection. A noticeable number, 43, stated that they were leaving home because of domestic difficulties; 53 stated that their job required travel. It is especially significant to note that from the information given on the schedules only 11 of the total of 1,343 could be classified as "habitual roamers" or in the vernacular, "hoboes."

Table VI shows the States of residence as claimed by the migrant and the reasons they gave for leaving that State.

TABLE VI.—*State of residence by reason for leaving*

State of residence	Total State	Reason for leaving home																		
		Economic distress								Personal distress					Not in distress					
		Unemployment	Inadequate earnings	Business failure	Inadequate relief	Unwilling to be on relief	Evicted from owned or rented domicile	Relation unable to continue support	Other economic reasons	Ill health	Domestic difficulties	Dislike separation from relatives	Death—family or friends	Other personal difficulties	Job required travel	Visit	Vacation or travel	Other	Roamer	Unknown
Alabama	2	2																		
Arizona	12	5								1	1				1			2		2
Arkansas	16	8								2	1	1			1			2		1
California	53	30							1		4	1	2		4	5	1	1		4
Colorado	50	29					1		1	2	2	2			4	5	1	2		1
Connecticut	8	4													2		2			
Washington, D. C	1	1																		
Florida	4	3								1										
Georgia	5	5																		
Idaho	5	3							1							1				
Illinois	65	38	1			2				1	2	1	2		3	9		2	2	
Indiana	33	22									1		2		3	1		1		3
Iowa	56	36								2	2			1	1	1	1	2	2	8
Kansas	269	163			3	3			4	13	11	2	8	2	10	15	2	13	3	17
Kentucky	14	9								1					1	1			1	1
Louisiana	3	2														1				
Maine	2	1																1		
Maryland	6	3	1								1							1		
Massachusetts	10	8														1		1		
Michigan	23	15	1							1	2						1			3
Minnesota	19	13									1		1			1	1	2		
Mississippi	2																	2		
Missouri	164	112	4	1	1					7	3		1		3	8		5		19
Montana	9	6												1		1	1			
Nebraska	40	27								1			2		3	4		2		1
Nevada	3	3																		
New Jersey	4	3								1										
New Mexico	3	1								1			1							
New York	26	13								1	2		1		2	2	1	1		3
North Carolina	3	2																1		

Ohio	41	33									2				2	1	1	2		
Oklahoma	140	95						1		3	3		2	2	2	6		5		21
Oregon	8	5								1					1			1		
Pennsylvania	37	18								3	1		1		1	1	3	4	1	4
Rhode Island	1	1																		
South Carolina	3	2									1									
South Dakota	7	5																1		1
Tennessee	16	8								1				2		1		2		2
Texas	68	49							1	2	1		1	2	4		1	2		5
Utah	4	3														1				
Virginia	4	2													1			1		
Vermont	1	1																		
Washington	11	5													2	1		2		1
Wisconsin	7	3								2					1	1				
Wyoming	6	2								1						3				
Unknown	69	16					1		1		2		2		1			2	2	42
West Virginia	10	9																1		
Total	1,343	824	7	1	4	5	2	1	9	48	43	7	26	10	53	71	16	64	11	10

It is of some significance that almost every State in the Union is represented. It will be noted that 663, or nearly 50 percent, claimed residence in either Kansas or one of the bordering States, namely, Missouri, Nebraska, Colorado, or Oklahoma. Other leading States that were named are in order: Texas, 68; Illinois, 65; Iowa, 56; California, 53; and Ohio, 41. As has been indicated previously in the discussion of table V, the main reason for leaving is economic or unemployment.

In the case of Kansas itself, of the 269 applicants who gave their residence as Kansas, 163, or over 60 percent, stated that unemployment was the reason for moving, 5 percent gave ill health, 4 percent attributed their migration to domestic difficulties, 5 percent were visiting, while 1 percent, or 3 applicants, were classified as "roamers."

Table VII attempts to show the usual occupation and the employability of the applicants.

TABLE VII.—*Usual occupation and employability of applicants*

Usual occupation	Total	Employable	Employability doubtful	Unemployable	Employability unknown
Total	1,343	1,051	177	33	82
	Percent distribution				
Inexperienced persons	4	5	2	3	1
Professional and technical workers	1	1	2	-----	-----
Proprietors, managers, and officials	1	1	(1)	-----	-----
Office workers	2	2	2	3	-----
Salesmen	2	1	3	5	-----
Skilled workers	17	17	22	14	-----
Semiskilled workers	12	14	13	-----	-----
Unskilled workers	43	47	40	21	11
Domestic and personal service workers	10	10	12	14	-----
Unknown	7	2	4	7	88
Mothers with dependent children under 16	1	-----	-----	33	-----
Total	100	100	100	100	100

[1] Less than 1 percent.

To attempt such a classification based on the material submitted by so many interviewers from both private and public agencies is difficult and obviously fraught with danger of considerable error. Nevertheless, the problem was attempted with the results shown. The major classifications used are those used previously by the Division of Social Research of the Work Projects Administration in their research monograph entitled, "Migrant Families." In the first place it appears that the major portion of the applicants, 1,051, or nearly 80 percent, are employable, and if the employability of the 82 that were unknown were known it would probably show up even higher. In general, the results on the schedules as submitted seem to indicate that at least 4 out of 5 of the applicants could be considered employable. The table shows that 17 percent, or 228 applicants, were skilled workers. This seems to be too high and possibly is erroneous although there is a possibility that more skilled workers are now on the road with expectation of getting employment in the defense program. Then, too, some of these so-called skilled workers were skilled at one time but now their skill is obsolete. While only 43 percent of the applicants are shown as unskilled if to these are added "inexperienced persons," "domestic and personal service workers," the "unknowns," and "mothers with dependent children," the number of unskilled is increased to 65 percent, which, of course, seems more reasonable.

Table VIII shows the location of the last "30-day job," by States and the approximate time in which it was terminated:

TABLE VIII.—*Location of last job by States and date of termination*

Location	Total Number	Date of termination and percent distribution														
		Total	1940	1939	1938	1937	1936	1935	1934	1933	1932	1931	1930	Before 1930	Not applicable	Unknown
Alabama	1	100	(2)													
Arizona	7	100	(2)	(2)												
Arkansas	11	100	55	18						9		9			9	
California	71	100	59	12	10	6	1	6								6
Colorado	69	100	78	3	1			5	1						3	9
Connecticut	4	100	(2)													(2)
Delaware	1	100	(2)													
District of Columbia	1	100		(2)												
Florida	5	100	(2)	(2)	(2)											(2)
Georgia	1	100		(2)												
Idaho	9	100	(2)			(2)										
Illinois	52	100	77		5	2	4	2					4	2		4
Indiana	23	100	78		4	18										
Iowa	53	100	59	15	8	2		5	2		2			5		2
Kansas	206	100	66	3	3	2	2	2	1	1			1	4	3	12
Kentucky	10	100	80	10			10									
Louisiana	3	100	(2)	(2)										(2)		
Maryland	4	100	(2)	(2)												
Massachusetts	4	100	(2)													
Michigan	20	100	50	15		20										15
Minnesota	32	100	85	6	3											6
Mississippi	2	100	(2)													
Missouri	105	100	63	9	9	2		1	1	1	2			3		9
Montana	18	100	77	11									6			6
Nebraska	38	100	52	8	3		10				5	3	3	8	3	5
Nevada	5	100	(2)									(2)				
New Jersey	7	100	(2)	(2)												
New Mexico	10	100	70	10	10	10										
New York	29	100	76	4	4	7					3	3			3	
North Carolina	2	100	(2)													
North Dakota	10	100	80		10								10			
Ohio	17	100	76	6		6	6									6
Oklahoma	95	100	59	11	4	3	1	1	2	1	3		4	2		9
Oregon	16	100	81	19												
Pennsylvania	22	100	64	4	4	5	5							9		9
South Dakota	8	100	(2)		(2)		(2)									
Tennessee	8	100	(2)													
Texas	52	100	54	19	4	2	2	2		4	4		2	2		5
Utah	7	100	(2)	(2)											(2)	
Washington	15	100	80	13												7
West Virginia	6	100	(2)	(2)												

TABLE VIII.—*Location of last job by States and date of termination*—Continued

Location	Total Number	Date of termination and percent distribution													
		Total	1940	1939	1938	1937	1936	1935	1934	1933	1932	1931	1930	Before 1930	Not applicable	Unknown
Wisconsin	5	100	(2)	----	(2)	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Wyoming	5	100	(2)	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Foreign Countries	1	100	----	(2)	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Unknown	273	100	5	1	----	(1)	----	(1)	----	(1)	----	----	----	2	----	92
Total	1,343	100	54	7	4	2	1	1	1	1	1	(1)	1	2	1	24

[1] Less than 0.5 percent.
[2] Percent not calculated on a base of fewer than 10.

A large number of the applicants, 513, or nearly 39 percent, states that they had had their last employment either in Kansas or in the 4 surrounding States of Missouri, Nebraska, Colorado, and Oklahoma. Four other States named in order were: California, 71; Iowa, 53; Illinois, 52; and Texas, 52. It is interesting to note that of all the applicants 54 percent, or more than one-half, claimed that they had been employed at least 30 days in some one job during 1940. At least this job terminated in 1940.

Table IX shows the nature of the last job with respect to the date of its termination:

TABLE IX.—*Last job and date of termination*

Nature of last job	Total number	Date of termination and percent distribution															
		Total	1940	1939	1938	1937	1936	1935	1934	1933	1932	1931	1930	Before 1930	Still employed	Not applicable	Unknown
Farm worker	234	100	74	7	3	(1)	(1)	2	1	(1)	---	---	1	1	(1)	-----	11
Operator	1	100	(2)	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----	----
Tenant	4	100	(2)	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----	----
Laborer	229	100	73	8	3	(1)	(1)	2	1	(1)	---	---	1	1	(1)	-----	11
Professional	16	100	69	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	12	-----	19
Clerical	18	100	66	22	6	---	---	6	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----	----
Sales	24	100	58	---	13	---	4	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	13	-----	12
Service job	39	100	67	5	3	---	3	---	---	---	---	2	---	2	---	-----	18
Skilled	232	100	61	11	5	7	2	2	---	(1)	2	(1)	1	(1)	1	-----	8
Unskilled	456	100	64	7	5	3	2	2	(1)	1	1	1	1	4	1	-----	8
Other workers	45	100	53	16	7	---	---	---	---	2	---	---	---	---	---	-----	22
Inexperienced workers	34	100	18	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	3	79
No job of 30 days' duration	38	100	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	100	----
Unknown	207	100	16	2	1	---	2	---	1	---	1	---	---	2	---	-----	75
Total	1,343	100	54	7	4	2	1	1	1	1	1	(1)	1	2	1	3	21

[1] Less than 0.5 percent.
[2] Amount not calculated on a base of fewer than 10.

This table, the same as table VII, tends to show that a considerable number of the applicants were skilled workmen. This fact probably needs some qualification. According to the "unskilled" classification only 456, or 34 percent of the total number of applicants, were technically unskilled, but when "farm laborers," "service," "other workers," "inexperienced workers," "persons never having had a job of 30 days or more duration," and the "unknowns," which contain a preponderance of unskilled workmen, no doubt, are combined with the "unskilled" group as set up in the table, a total of 1,048, or 78 percent of all applicants, appear to be largely unskilled. As in the previous table, most of the 30-day jobs appear to have ended some time during 1940.

Table X shows a tabulation of the States of residence, on one hand, as opposed to the States of destination, on the other:

TABLE X.—*State of residence and State of destination*

STATE OF DESTINATION

State of residence	Total	Ala.	Ariz.	Ark.	Calif.	Colo.	Conn.	Dist. of Col.	Ga.	Idaho	Ill.	Ind.	Iowa	Kans.	Ky.	La.	Maine	Mass.	Mich.	Minn.	Miss.	Mo.	Mont.	Nebr.	Nev.	N. J.	N. Mex.	N. Y.	N. C.	Ohio	Okla.	Oreg.	Pa.	S. C.	S. Dak.	Tenn.	Tex.	Utah	Va.	Wash.	W. Va.	Wisc.	Wyo.	Unknown	Travel	Foreign
Total	1, 343	2	29	9	76	77	2	1	2	9	37	13	33	394	9	4	3	5	5	7	2	124	11	50	4	3	9	8	2	25	102	3	13	1	2	6	76	4	4	11	6	2	4	110	43	1
Ala	2																																				2									
Ariz	12		7																					1		1					1													2		
Ark	16			7		1								4								1									1						1							1		
Calif	53				20	1					4			11						1		5		2						4	2						2								1	
Colo	50				1	24							1	12	1							6		1							2													1	1	
Conn	8				1	1	1							2									1								1													1		
Dist. of Col	1							1																																						
Fla	4				1					1				1								1																								
Ga	5								2					1																							1							1		
Idaho	5									3												1									1															
Ill	65		1		7	2					23			14								5		1			2										1			2	2			5		
Ind	33		1		1	1						13		8	1							1		1													3							3		
Iowa	56				2	3				1	1		15	10								2		2			1				4						3	1						11		
Kans	269			1	2	4				1	2		8	185								10		8			1				8						8							20	11	
Ky	14		1		1	1					1			1	7																						1							1		
La	3													1		1																												1		
Maine	2																2																													
Md	6					3					1			1			1																													
Mass	10				2						2			2				3																						1						
Mich	23		5		3	1								3		1			4			1									1						1							3		
Minn	19		1			2								4				1		4		1									3						2							1		
Miss	2																				2																									
Mo	164	1	2		10	13							2	25						1		69	1	3	2		3				7	1					4	1	1	1			1	10	6	
Mont	9		1											3								1	4																							
Nebr	40				1									7								2	1	18							1						2			1				2	5	
Nev	3					1																			1																			1		
N. J	4					1																				2											1									
N. Mex	3												1	1																	1															
N. Y	26		1		3	2	1				1			5						1					1		1	5			1						2							2		
N. C	3													1															2																	
Ohio	41		1		6	1					1			3								4								18	1						2			1					3	
Okla	140	1		1		3							1	29								5		7			1	2		1	57						4			3				20	4	[1] 1

Oreg.	8		1										1	2																	1	2					1									
Pa.	37		3		4	3								2		1						1										1		12				3				1			4	2	
R. I.	1		1																																										
S. C.	3					1																									1														
S. Dak.	7		1							1					2										1													2										1		
Tenn.	16				1	3					1			1								2														6								2		
Tex.	68				1									3	21								5		2				1		1								25								6	3	
Utah	4													1																									1	2									
Vt.	1		1																																										
Va.	4													1																	1								2								
Wash.	11				1										7										1																			2						
W. Va.	10				2	2																1																1		1		3					
Wisc.	7		1													1								1							1													2			1	
Wyo.	6					1														1							1																			3			
Unknown	69				6	2				2			1	23				1					1	3						1	5		1	1			5							11	6	

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[1] Canada.

Although table X will be an appendix table in the final report, it was decided that it should be included in the preliminary report because of the rather interesting implications which it offers. The diagonal shadow line from the top left corner of the table to the lower right corner gives a clue to the prevalence of the migrants who are returning to their States of residence. Of the 53 applicants who gave their residence as California, for instance, 20 or over 37 percent stated that they were returning to California. Colorado had 50 applicants, and of these, 24, or nearly 50 percent, were returning to Colorado. The same figure for Illinois was 35 percent and for Missouri, 42 percent. Kansas would be unique in this respect in that many of the residents probably never left the State, but are intrastate transients or nonresidents of the particular county where they asked for assistance. A supplementary table will be prepared later which, it is hoped, will bring out the course of the intrastate migrants by counties and this will be included in the final report. It is possible from this table to calculate the net loss or gain to any State for the sample studied. It will be noted that some States gained while others lost but in general what is indicated here is that all States appear to be participating in the migratory movement that seems to be going on within the United States. Contrary to the recent census reports Kansas in this sample appears to have gained rather than lost in the exchange.

Mode of travel.—A tabulation of the mode of travel of the migrants shows quite conclusively that a large number, 574 applicants, or 43 percent are "riding the rods" much the same as the so-called "hoboes" used to do. Thirty-two stated that they had paid their fare and were riding the train or bus as a paid customer. Of the remainder 507 stated that they were hitchhiking; 136 had cars of their own; 11 were traveling in other ways; and for 83 no facts were given on the schedule. There is no question from the above information that the movement appears to be rapid and that much ground may be covered in any one day's travel by this group of persons. The slow-moving "hobo" is all but a thing of the past. In his place must be substituted an employable individual or family group that is in search of work but is only vaguely aware of where he may finally find it.

Service rendered.—Of the 1,716 separate applications for service both the private and the public agencies honored a large number of them even though the service admittedly consisted of food, clothing, lodging, medical care, or other service alone. Of 969 applications that were given service in a single form, 464 received meals; 219, lodging; 174, clothing; 43 received some form of medical care; 10 were given transportation by public carrier; 44 were given gas and oil for their automobile; correspondence was conducted for 9; some other type of service was rendered the remaining 6. Of the 576 applications that received a combination of service, 395 were provided food and lodging; 74, food and clothing; 62, food and fuel for the automobile; 4, food and medical care; and 41 some other combination of service similar to that indicated. Of the total only 171 received no service following their request. While it is noted that a large percentage of the requests appear to have been honored it should be remembered that the agencies involved admit that an indeterminable number of cases were never interviewed or their requests were denied without filling out the schedule. It should not be concluded from the above facts that the migrants in Kansas are getting much more than is imperative in a service that is essentially one of "passing on." Some service is being given, it is true, but in the main and under the present circumstances, the service is at a minimum.

State Department of Social Welfare of Kansas,
Topeka, Kans., August 27, 1940.

To: County Directors of Social Welfare.

In accordance with Chairman's Letter No. 125, we are enclosing a supply of forms and instructions to be used in connection with the case study of transients during the months of September, October, and November.

These forms are to be filled in by all agencies in each county of the State, private as well as public, which have contacts with transients and/or migrants as defined in the general instructions attached.

Complete coverage of migration in Kansas for the period of 3 months should give us concrete and interesting information for our report to the special

House committee on the problem of interstate migration of destitute citizens by January 1, 1941. Also we expect to avail our own State legislators with the results of the study at their meeting in January.

The State labor department, the State employment service, the legislative council, Kansas Conference of Social Work, and the State department of social welfare will sincerely appreciate your cooperation in this study.

Very truly yours,

Frank E. Milligan,
Chairman, State Department of Social Welfare.

General Instructions for Using Statistical Form for Study of Transients

Scope.—These forms are to be filled in by all persons or agencies which give service to transients, whether it be the sheriff, city marshal, Salvation Army, Red Cross, county welfare department, or other agency or person in the county.

The information is to be taken on all individuals, families, or groups or individuals who apply in the county for service who do not have settlement within the county although they may or may not have settlement in some other county in Kansas. In other words, intrastate cases are to be included as well as interstate. Verification of settlement will not be required for the study, although from the welfare point of view it might be desirable. Whether or not the forms should be executed on a particular applicant can be decided by the worker after briefly questioning the applicant in the majority of cases.

Procedure.—From the standpoint of sound community organization, and inasmuch as the State department has agreed to use its facilities to secure the information for the study, the county director of social welfare is the logical person to solicit the cooperation of the other agencies in the county which serve transients. The county director is requested, therefore, to supervise the conduct of the study within the county and it will be necessary for him to introduce the study to these other agencies.

Arrangements will need to be made for the instruction of individuals in the agencies who will be filling out the forms. Group instruction in some counties may prove feasible but in any event, special effort should be made to insure that each interviewer clearly understands what is desired under each item on the schedule.

Only one schedule on a case needs to be executed in any one county regardless of the number of agencies that participate in the service. Duplication may be kept at a minimum through special local arrangements. Schedules should be kept at the point of application until the service on the case is concluded.

The schedules are to be sent to Chester H. Fischer, bureau of research and statistics of the State department of social welfare at the end of each week during the course of the study. The first group of schedules should be mailed September 7, and the last November 30. If there has been no occasion to use the schedules during a particular week, we will appreciate being informed by letter.

A schedule should be filled out even though the service requested may not be granted. The interviewer may accomplish this purpose in many cases by explaining to the migrant the reason why information is being requested and that it is to his interest and others on the road to have it recorded. A great deal of very valuable information may be secured in this way where otherwise it would be lost.

It is important that a sufficient supply of forms be made available to the agencies. If you need more forms than we included in the initial supply, advise us and we will send you the number of additional forms you need.

Specific Instructions for Filling in Statistical Form for Study of Transients

(1) *Date of Application.*—Month and day of application. The form is to be filled out in the office in which the application is made and held until the service on the case is completed.

(2) *Color.*—Check W for white, N for Negro, O for other. Specify if Indian or Mexican by Ind. or Mex.

(3) *Birthplace.*—Name State in which aplpicant was born if born in the United States, or country if foreign born. If members of the family have different birthplaces, then refer to Remarks and include the information.

(4) *Social Security Number*—Self-explanatory. If the applicant does not have a number and some other member of the family does, then write in this latter number.

(5) *Name of county.*—Enter name of county in which agency is operating.

(6) *Name of agency.*—Name of agency in which application is made, such as welfare office, American Red Cross, Salvation Army, county jail.

(7) *War veteran.*—If the applicant has served in the armed forces during time of war whether, World War, Spanish-American War, Phillipine Insurrection, or the Boxer Rebellion, check "Yes"; if not, check "No."

(8) *Citizen.*—Self-explanatory.

(9) *Name.*—Write last name first. If there is more than one person in the group, it will not be necessary to repeat the family name of each individual unless it is different from that of the Head. The letters in front of the names are given so that they may be used in item (31) instead of rewriting the name if so desired.

Age.—Age in years at last birthday for each person listed.

Sex.—Use M for male and F for female.

Relation to head.—Wife, son, daughter, or other relationship. If no relation, enter "None."

Ed.—Enter highest grade completed in grammar school, high school, or college.

Months in school last year (school age).—Enter after each child of school age the number of months that the child attended school during the school year 1939–40. If school attendance this fall is irregular, refer to Remarks and explain.

(10) *Social status of head.*—Check M if the "head" is married, S if single, Div. if divorced, Sep. if separated, Wid. if a widow, Widr. if a widower. If a group and the social status is not that of an ordinary family, refer to Remarks and explain.

(11) *Applicant's home.*—Enter city and State which the applicant claims as his home. In cases where the individuals in the group come from different States, refer to Remarks and explain. If the applicant has no place he calls home, enter "None."

(12) *Date left home last time.*—Enter month, day, and year applicant left home the last time. If this person or family has been away from home (on the road) frequently, then explain the circumstances under Remarks.

(13) *Time continuous residence at home.*—Period of time in months and years person or family head resided continuously at home before going on the road. If place of settlement is known, then refer to Remarks and give this information. State in such instance if the settlement has been verified and whether or not the agency has authorization for return of the applicant.

(14) *Reasons given for leaving home.*—Self-explanatory.

(15) *Ultimate destination.*—City and/or State which the applicant hopes to reach eventually. If the person or family has no such definite destination in mind, give region under Remarks if possible. Otherwise, enter "None."

(16) *Reasons given for destination.*—Self-explanatory.

(17) *Mode of travel.*—Self-explanatory.

(18) *Travel route through Kansas.*—Give main points through which the person has passed or is expecting to pass, or give highway numbers, or names of railroads.

(19) *Auto.*—Name of car, year of make, body design, and the license number.

(20) *Ever stay at some transient camp.*—If the client has lived for a time in either an F. E. R. A. Transient Camp (Federal Emergency Relief Administration) or in an F. S. A. Camp (Farm Security Administration) anywhere in the United States, check "Yes"; if not, check "No."

(21) *Location of camp.*—Give city and State in which the camp is located and enter the month and year in which the applicant entered the camp.

(22) *Last private job of 30 days or more duration.*—Check for the head of the family the classification that applies to the last job. If a man was a farm tenant, then check "Tenant"; if a skilled mechanic, check "Skilled"; and if a domestic servant, check "Service job." If you secure additional information from more than one adult in the family or for persons other than the head, refer to Remarks and explain.

The following may be of assistance in classifying the applicant:

Agricultural occupations: (*a*) Fishery and forestry, (*b*) agricultural and horticultural, (*c*) hunting and trapping.

Professional occupations: (*a*) Professional and managerial, (*b*) semiprofessional, (*c*) official.

Clerical and sales occupations.

Service occupations: (*a*) Domestic service, (*b*) personal service, (*c*) protective service, (*d*) building service workers and porters.

Skilled occupations.

Unskilled occupations.

(23) *Date the job ended.*—Month, day, and year that the last job of 30 days or more duration ended. For more than one adult, refer to Remarks and explain.

State worked in.—Give State in which the work was done.

(24) *Usual occupation.*—Name the occupation for which the applicant is best fitted by either training, experience, or both. If the applicant says his usual occupation is an "auto mechanic," assure yourself that his statement is true through appropriate questioning as to how long he has worked as a mechanic and where. If the applicant is no longer able to follow his usual occupation because of reason of health, age, or other reason refer to remarks and explain. If the applicant has more than one usual occupation, then the one he has engaged in most recently should be used. The former usual occupation should be named under remarks together with his reason for no longer working at it. Be as specific as possible in order that the type of occupation may be clear to the person reading the schedule and in order that it may be classified accurately.

(25) Worked on W.P.A.—If the applicant or any member of the group has ever worked on W.P.A., check "Yes" and give State in which the certification was made; if not, check "No."

(26) *Enrolled in C.C.C.*—Same as for W.P.A.

(27) *Worked on N.Y.A.*—Same as for W.P.A. and C.C.C.

(28) *Request of applicant.*—Enter the request for service as made by the applicant, for example, food and lodging for family and hospitalization for son who is seriously ill.

(29) *Service rendered.*—This item should be filled in after service is completed on the case within the county. Arrangements will need to be made locally so that only one agency will execute a form on any one case. Also, it must be made certain that all service is entered on the form before it is mailed. The entry in the above case might be: "$2 grocery order, 1 night's lodging in jail, and medical examination by Dr. Jones at the Central Hospital. Medical bill—Service $5."

(30) *Other assistance applicant received in Kansas.*—If the applicant states that he has received other assistance in Kansas, then enter the name of the agency that gave the assistance, location, and type of service given. Even though the applicant may give only the names of agencies that assisted him, this information will be of value and should be recorded.

(31) *Health of individual members of family.*—If there are health problems in the family, then list the name or names of the person or persons or use the line identification letters in item 9 that have these problems. Give the nature of the health problems, the treatment the persons received elsewhere on the road for their ailments (if needed and if not previously needed, enter "not needed") and, finally, indicate the service given in the county of application. This section offers the interviewer an opportunity to enlarge on item 28. (Request of applicant) where the problem is health. If more than one person is ill, enter each individual with the appropriate information on a separate line.

(32) *Remarks of interviewer—The interviewer is urged to use the section on Remarks freely.*—Information may be stapled to the form on sheets of paper if desired. For the purposes of this study, it will be better to give more information than can be used rather than to give too little. Be sure that all information given is clear and complete.

(33) *Signature of interviewer.*—Self-explanatory.

Date completed.—Enter date that the service on the case is completed and the case closed.

STATISTICAL FORM FOR STUDY OF TRANSIENTS

(1) Date of application: ____
(2) Color: W. N. O. ____
(3) Birthplace: ____
(4) Social Security number: ____

(5) Name of County: ______________________________

(6) Name of agency: ______________________________

(7) War Veteran: Yes No.

(8) Citizen: Yes No.

	Name	Age	Sex	Relation to Head	Ed.	Mos. in School Last Yr. (Sch. Age)
(9) (a)	____________	____	____	Head	________	
(b)	____________	____	____	__________	________	
(c)	____________	____	____	__________	________	__________
(d)	____________	____	____	__________	________	__________
(e)	____________	____	____	__________	________	__________

(10) Social Status of Head: M S Div. Sep. Wid. Widr.

(11) Applicant's Home: City______________ State______________

(12) Date Left Home Last Time: ______________________________

(13) Time Continuous Residence at Home: ______________________________ (Years and Months)

(14) Reasons Given for Leaving Home: ______________________________

____

(15) Ultimate Destination: City______________ State______________

(16) Reasons Given for Destination: ______________________________

____

(17) Mode of Travel: Auto Hitchhiking Train (Check one) Other______________ (Specify)

(18) Travel Route Through Kansas: ______________________________

(19) Auto: ______________________________ Make Model Type License Number

(20) Ever Stay at Some Transient Camp: Yes__________ No__________

(21) Location of Camp: ______________________ When Entered__________

(22) Last Private Job of 30 Days or More Duration: (Check if Head) __________

If Farm Worker: Operator Tenant Labor Other______________ (Specify)

If Not Farm Worker: Professional Clerical Sales Service Job Skilled Unskilled Other______________________________ (Specify)

(23) Date the Job Ended: ____________________ State Worked In__________

(24) Usual Occupation: ______________________________ (Be as specific as possible)

(25) Worked on W. P. A.: Yes________ No________ State______________

(26) Served in C. C. C.: Yes________ No________ State Enrolled In__________

(27) Worked on N. Y. A.: Yes________ No________ State______________

(28) Request of Applicant: ______________________________

____

____

(29) Service Rendered: ______________________________ (Specify type, cost, and by whom given)

____

____

(30) Other Assistance Applicant Received in Kansas:

Agency	Location	Service
____________	____________	____________

(31) Health of Individual Members of Family:

Write name or use line identification letter	Nature of health problem	Treatment received on road previous to arrival in this county	Treatment given in this county

(32) Remarks of Interviewer: Suggestions—
- (a) Significant travel history;
- (b) Employment information on persons other than Head;
- (c) Questionable validity of any information given;
- (d) Previous contacts of Agency with case;
- (e) Comments, descriptions, or impressions of the Interviewer.

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(33) Signature of Interviewer: --
Date Completed: --

The Chairman. We will take a 5-minute recess.

(Thereupon a short recess was taken, at the conclusion of which the proceedings were resumed as follows:)

The Chairman. The committee will please come to order.

TESTIMONY OF HARRY J. KRUSZ, GENERAL MANAGER, CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, LINCOLN, NEBR.

The Chairman. Will you give your name to the reporter, please.

Mr. Krusz. Harry J. Krusz.

The Chairman. In what capacity are you here?

Mr. Krusz. I am manager of the Lincoln Chamber of Commerce. My testimony is with regard to the defense industries, in connection with this problem.

The Chairman. You have submitted a very admirable statement here, and it is inserted in our record.

STATEMENT BY HARRY J. KRUSZ, GENERAL MANAGER, LINCOLN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, LINCOLN, NEBR.

A Statement on Defense Material Manufacturing in the Midwest and Its Effect Upon Interstate Migration

We are pleased that the important congressional Committee Investigating Interstate Migration of Destitute Citizens has come to Nebraska to secure first-hand information and facts concerning this important subject. As the evidence to be submitted before this hearing in Lincoln will doubtless prove, Nebraska has suffered greatly from the loss of population due to drought conditions in this section.

Doubtless much good will come in future years from the effort which is being made to put water on the land of the farmers in the drought area. However, securing the necessary projects to make this possible is a slow process and we are certain to suffer further population losses in the meantime.

In the opinion of the Lincoln Chamber of Commerce and many other chambers of commerce throughout the State (representing the best business thought in this area) an immediate remedy would be the establishment of defense manufacturing plants in this area. For example, we have filed briefs for the establishment of a smokeless powder plant, aeronautical laboratory, and numerous projects of that nature. Some communities are seeking army cantonments and other similar projects. We are assisting many of the existing manufacturers in securing orders for Government projects which we hope will necessitate the expansion of some of the existing industries.

As we now stand, boys from the farm, many of our trained engineers and graduate students, students graduating from the Lincoln Flying School, immediately upon graduation will depart for the east or west coasts where manufacturing of the defense materials is being carried on energetically. In other words the manufacturing which is being done on the east and west coasts is depleting our farms and our existing factories of their skilled help. If on the other hand some of these plants could be located in this area, we could absorb the graduates of our vocational schools and colleges, as well as a lot of the unskilled farm labor, in plants in this area thus holding them in the State so their productive earnings would benefit this country and would further help to solve the migration problem.

It seems to us from the social standpoint it does not help to further crowd overcrowded cities when there is so much room for expansion and better living conditions in the areas such as we have.

This premise might be expanded to unlimited possibilities; however, we make this brief statement relying upon your common sense and good judgment to follow the subject to its logical conclusion.

TESTIMONY OF HARRY J. KRUSZ—Resumed

The Chairman. If there are any high spots that you want to present, we should be very glad to hear them at this time.

Mr. Krusz. Our point of view is presented, not perhaps as an ultimate solution to the problem, but perhaps as the emergency has arisen——

The Chairman (interposing). Right at that point: As a matter of fact, there is no single solution to this problem, so anything that will help along the way, that is what we are interested in.

Mr. Krusz. We feel this way, that one of the problems in connection with the loss of population in Nebraska has been, in recent months, at least, the departure of a lot of our young people. For example, at the Lincoln Flying School here, they turn out a number of graduates in mechanical training, welders and airplane builders. Immediately upon graduation they go to either California, Washington, or some eastern point, to get a job in an airplane factory or in the industrial section. Now, the problem has grown to such an extent that the States out here have gotten together in a recent conference, which you probably know something about, and have presented and asked that consideration be given to the industries, the existing industries, in these States out here, and also that in the planning of future defense industries, that they be established through this section, as one solution toward taking care of our population, the people of the farms who may not be able to find work on the farms, and the graduates of our own mechanical schools, to keep them from going to the more thickly populated sections. We know, of course, that suggestion has been made through several sources. We think that it will be effective in the long-range program. Of course, we all feel the problem in Nebraska, and we know if we get water, that will be an important factor in keeping the boys on the farms and making the farms profitable and prosperous. That is basic.

The Chairman. Well, I think it is a very good suggestion; it is one we haven't heard so far in our hearing, you see. We have had your statement incorporated into the record and will give it our very best attention, when we make our final report.

Thank you.

Mr. Krusz. It can be expanded at great length.

Mr. Curtis. In connection with this witness, I wish to offer letters we have received from several airplane manufacturers.

(The letters referred to appear below.)

BEECH AIRCRAFT CORPORATION,
Wichita, Kans., September 14, 1940.

TOLAN COMMITTEE,
901 North Sixteenth Street, Lincoln, Nebr.

GENTLEMEN: Due to the national-defense expansion program which we are setting up and have under construction at the present time, we will be unable to send a representative from our organization to present our side of the interstate migration of destitute citizens at the hearings to be held in your city September 16 and 17, 1940. We are sending this letter as a means of conveying to you our experience with migratory labor.

Since most of the larger aircraft factories at the present time are located on the coasts and have drawn a major portion of their workers from the Middle West, an interstate barrier on migrating labor would probably be a handicap to the inland aircraft factories in securing experienced aircraft workers. The majority of migratory labor is not skilled aircraft. However, we are able to pick from these workers men with backgrounds sufficient to hire as learners and apprentices in our factory and with a minimum of instruction make aircraft workers of them.

If the present aircraft skilled labor native to this section of the country could be returned to this section, our employment problems would all be solved. But since these men are employed in other States, and in the event that a barrier should be erected to prevent them from migrating, it would make it necessary for us to take raw material from schools or available unskilled labor and give them such training as would be necessary for the operation of our factory.

Since all Government contracts under the national-defense program have certain time and delivery dates set up, we must be able to call upon skilled labor in whatever section of the country it may be available to build up our factory personnel large enough to fulfill these contracts at the stipulated dates.

I hope the above comments will convey to you the problem which the aviation industry is faced with in this section of the country.

Very truly yours,

CHAS. G. MUDD,
Industrial Relations.
H. A. SCHOWALTER,
Personnel Director.

STEARMAN AIRCRAFT,
DIVISION OF BOEING AIRPLANE CO.,
Wichita, Kans., September 13, 1940.

INTERSTATE MIGRATION COMMITTEE,
Lincoln, Nebr.

GENTLEMEN: In answer to your telegram of September 12, we are glad of this opportunity to give you an expression of our views on the migration of labor.

We are not opposed to voluntary migration of labor, for we feel this is a normal indication of a good, Nation-wide economic condition. Of course, many times the employee is misled by his own thinking and might be better off not to have made the move, but that is something that each individual must decide for himself.

However, we are very much opposed to migration brought about by companies or individuals who go into districts not lying within their normal employment territory and, through offers of rates much in excess of that normally prevailing in that district, cause satisfied employees to become dissatisfied, the result of which is that they quit what has been a good job, lose their seniority, leave the district in which they may have grown up, and go to the expense of moving their homes into surroundings which are only known to them by the glamorous appeal of the employment salesman. As we all know, many times this glamour among strange faces and strange practices causes additional dissatisfaction, and before complete family readjustments can be made the employee is faced with additional financial outlays, and in the end his gain by reason of higher rates is much more than offset by the cost of such readjustments and moving expenses. We are especially opposed to the employment representative who makes it a part of his policy to go directly into the homes of the employee and through individual salesmanship induce the employee, sometimes through his wife, to make a change which, if he were left to his normal judgment, might never be made.

We know the following condition exists. Representatives from the west coast come into the central district and hire our midwestern people for their plants. Likewise, representatives of eastern districts have gone into both the central part of our country and the west-coast section and have pirated labor from both places. Recently, we know that one of the aircraft companies in the Midwest set up an employment office in Los Angeles and interviewed a few thousand employees with the purpose of bringing them back to the Midwest district. This example alone should be enough to indicate that the policy, while possibly gaining immediate benefits for the employer, is certainly a costly one and one which in the end will probably backfire in the faces of every company in the country.

It is our policy to employ untrained men from our own district and, over a period of time, not only train them for a type of work but also train them for leadership. Our experience has proven to us that this type of individual fits into a coordinated picture much better than the person who has been brought in from other sections of the country under a classification which has no better designation than that of a "hot shot." We are so sold on this type of employee relationship that, in the face of the conditions as they exist today, we still propose to follow the policy as stated.

Yours very truly,

Stearman Aircraft
(Division of Boeing Airplane Co.),
Otto Plagens, *Personnel Director.*

Cessna Aircraft Co.,
Wichita, Kans., September 13, 1940.

Interstate Migration Committee of United States House of Representatives,
Lincoln, Nebr.

Gentlemen: Mr. Otto Plagen of Stearman Aircraft Corporation contacted me and gave me access to your telegram to him relative to the expression of the several aircraft companies located in Wichita as to their ideas regarding the migration of labor.

We feel that it is every laborer's privilege to work where he chooses and that no restrictions be placed on the area in which he works. It is my belief that the practice of manufacturers going from their areas to that of another manufacturing plant and offering employees more money than they now receive should be discouraged. This only builds labor unrest and causes workmen to become migratory and not satisfied in any one location, thereby making them unsuitable for any organization wishing stabilized labor.

The defense program calls for rapid manufacture and labor turnover in any organization only retards the efficient consummation of contracts.

Yours very truly,

Cessna Aircraft Co.,
J. B. Salisbury,
Personnel Director.

TESTIMONY OF JOHN A. HOPKINS, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS, IOWA STATE COLLEGE, AMES, IOWA

The Chairman. Mr. John Hopkins. Will you give your name and address, please.

Mr. Hopkins. John A. Hopkins, associate professor of agricultural economics, Iowa State College, Ames.

Mr. Parsons. We are very happy to have you with us here today. Your prepared statement has been read and is both very interesting and thorough.

(The statement referred to is as follows:)

STATEMENT BY JOHN A. HOPKINS, IOWA STATE COLLEGE, AMES, IOWA

Technological Changes in Agriculture and Their Effects on Farm Employment [1]

TRENDS IN EMPLOYMENT IN AGRICULTURE, 1909–39

In 1909 an estimated 12,200,000 persons employed in agriculture produced food, fiber, and other farm raw materials for a population of approximately 90,000,000. In 1939, 10,600,000 persons employed in agriculture were producing corresponding materials for a population 40 percent greater. What caused this decline in employment, and is it to be regarded as a blessing to the Nation at large or merely a curse to the individuals who were displaced from the farms? Before attempting to answer these questions, however, let us find out how the farm workers are classified, how the present employment is distributed over the Nation, and where and when the decline in farm employment occurred.

Most of the labor performed on farms in the United States is done by the farm operators themselves. The farm is essentially a family enterprise and any members of the farmer's family who are able, are likely to be found helping with the farm work. The make-up of the family labor group, however, varies considerably from one season to another, depending on the needs of the farm, and on whether children of working age are in school. The family labor group also varies from one phase of the business cycle to another, since some grown sons or other relatives who are paid wages when times are good, are likely to stay on the farm and work without pay when they are bad. The average number of family workers in the first of each month in 1939, according to estimates of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, was 8,150,000.

The second group consists of hired workers and numbered 2,479,000 in 1939. It is this group that has suffered the greatest loss of employment in recent years. Further, it has an extremely uncertain job tenure and an extremely low level of wages. But this committee is undoubtedly familiar already with the general comparison between farm and urban wages.

The number of workers just quoted is open to some qualification. The sharecroppers have been counted as farm operators. But with equal or even better logic they might be considered as hired workers since they ordinarily own neither land nor capital, and work under the close supervision of their landlords; receiving a share of the crop as their pay.

The census of 1930 showed 776,278 croppers in the Southern States.[2] In the eastern cotton and Delta cotton areas, they amounted to 28 and 34 percent of the reported farm operators, respectively. In the middle eastern and the western cotton areas, they comprised 14 and 13 percent. Including members of the croppers' families who worked with them, the group amounted to something over a million persons. If the croppers were counted as hired workers it would increase that group to around 3,500,000 and would reduce the number of family workers to about 7,100,000.

A further qualification must be made in our figures on account of part-time employment in agriculture. The census of 1930 reported that 1,363,000 of the farm operators worked off their farms less than 150 days during the year 1929. An additional 540,000 worked elsewhere more than 150 days, and of the latter group 468,000 reported that such off-the-farm employment was in industries other than agriculture. Thus it is not possible to draw a clear and definite line between persons employed in agriculture and those employed in other industries.

To simplify the discussion, I shall refer frequently to major farming areas. These are shown in figure I and consist of blocks of entire States within which farming methods and conditions are, in general, fairly homogeneous.

(See figure I, Major Farming Areas of the United States.)

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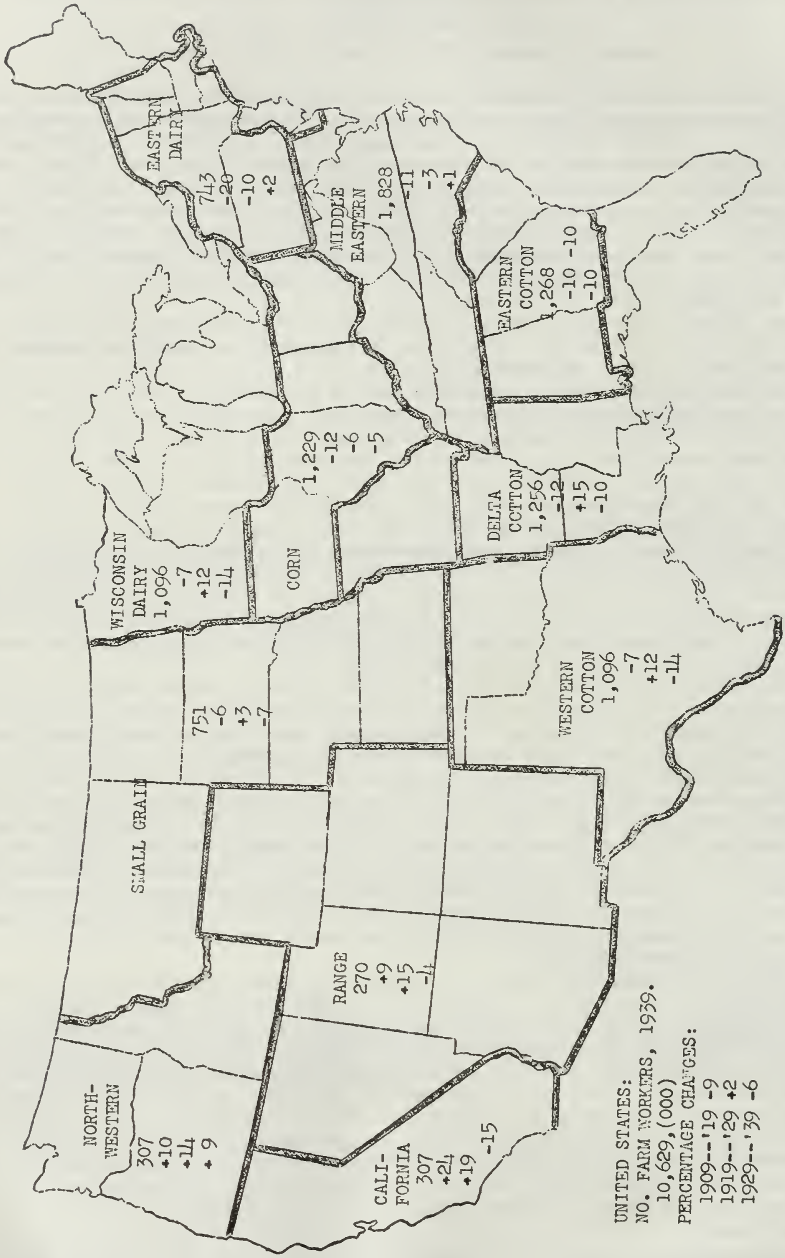
[1] Based chiefly on studies on Technological Changes in Agriculture and their Effects on Employment made by the National Research Project of W. P. A., which was under the direction of David Weintraub. A summary report of the Studies in Agriculture is now in process of publication by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

[2] Fifteenth Census of the United States, 1930 (U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1932), vol. IV, ch. III, table 7, p. 156.


NORTH-
WESTERN
307
+10
+14
+ 9
SMALL GRAIN
751
-6
+3
-7
WISCONSIN
DAIRY
1,096
-7
+12
-14
EASTERN
DAIRY
743
-20
-10
+2
RANGE
270
+9
+15
-4
CORN
1,229
-12
-6
-5
MIDDLE
EASTERN
1,828
-11
-3
+1
CALI-
FORNIA
307
+24
+19
-15
WESTERN
COTTON
1,096
-7
+12
-14
DELTA
COTTON
1,256
-12
+15
-10
EASTERN
COTTON
1,268
-10 -10
-10
UNITED STATES:
NO. FARM WORKERS, 1939.
10,629,(000)
PERCENTAGE CHANGES:
1909--'19 -9
1919--'29 +2
1929--'39 -6

The figures on this map give the average number of persons employed in agriculture on the first of each month in 1939, and also the percentage change occurring in each of the last three decades. The data on agricultural employment since 1937 were prepared by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, while those for earlier years represent estimates prepared by the National Research Project of W. P. A. in cooperation with the Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

Of the 10.6 million farm workers in 1939, 12 percent were found in the corn area, 15 percent in the two dairy areas, 17 percent in the middle eastern area, 34 percent in the three cotton areas, 7 percent in the small-grain area and 8 percent in areas farther west. It is in the region from the Corn Belt to the West, containing 31 percent of the farm employment, that technological changes have been most rapid during the last 30 years. In contrast, the cotton areas, containing 34 percent, have seen relatively few changes up to the present time. With the beginning of mechanization in the South, however, this region may well be one to show the greatest technological displacement of labor in the next two or three decades.

Each major farming area has shown its own peculiar trends in farm employment, but there are also certain common features. For the country as a whole, the sharpest declines occurred during the World War. During the decade from 1909 to 1919 total farm employment dropped 9 percent with family workers decreasing 11 percent and hired workers only 3. Following the war there was a small recovery in farm employment as soldiers and munition workers returned to the farms. The industrial booms of the late 1920's, however, again began to draw workers away from the farms and by 1929 we were practically back to the level of 1919. Following 1929, the continued mechanization, which occurred whenever the farmer had enough funds to adopt any economical new machinery, plus low prices for farm products caused a small further decline. Since 1935 the decline, according to the figures of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, has been running around 100,000 per year.

It should be noted that the reduction in farm employment during the depression hit the hired workers much harder than family workers. From 1929 through 1935 family workers on farms increased by 4 percent, while hired workers declined nearly a fifth. Part of the shift was undoubtedly related to a change in status of farmers' sons who had been paid wages during more prosperous years but became unpaid workers during the depression. Also many sons and other relatives returned to the farm after losing their jobs in cities. There was a tendency to lay off hired workers and utilize the help furnished by the unemployed sons and brothers.

For the country as a whole, these figures show remarkable stability of employment in agriculture for the 30-year period. This stability was made possible by the increase in labor efficiency which was just about equal to the growing demand for farm products. In individual areas, however, there were some pronounced changes.

In the corn area total farm employment declined nearly three-fourths of 1 percent per year from 1909 to 1934 and departed but little from this trend. The trends for family and for hired workers, however, differ. The average number of family workers declined from 1,166,000 in 1909 to 920,000 in 1928, but afterward increased to 970,000 in 1935. Hired workers fell only 9 percent in the first half of the period, recovered halfway by 1926, and then dropped from 393,000 in 1926 to 250,000 in 1934.

The two dairy areas followed different trends. In the eastern dairy area there was a decline of about one-fourth from 1909 to 1930, with family workers and hired workers decreasing about equally, while employment in the growing western dairy area was nearly the same at the end of the period as at the beginning. Also there was a decline in the number of family workers in this area and an increase in the number of hired workers.

In the middle eastern area agricultural employment fell about 15 percent from 2.1 million persons in 1909 to 1.8 million in 1930. There was a very gradual decline until 1916 and then a rapid one during the war. Following a slight recovery in 1920, a new decline of about 1 percent a year occurred from 1922 to 1930 while persons from this area were drawn into industrial employment. With the depression, however, the movement was reversed until 1935.

TABLE 1.—*Annual average of number of persons employed on first of each month,*[1] *by areas*

[Thousands]

Year	United States	Corn	Eastern dairy	Western dairy	Middle eastern	Eastern cotton	Delta cotton	Western cotton	Small grain	Range	Northwestern
1909	12, 209	1, 570	1, 012	945	2, 111	1, 750	1, 376	1, 224	801	240	225
1910	12, 146	1, 556	1, 000	945	2, 097	1, 739	1, 362	1, 218	797	244	230
1911	12, 042	1, 537	986	944	2, 068	1, 728	1, 342	1, 208	791	247	233
1912	12, 038	1, 531	977	942	2, 065	1, 722	1, 340	1, 212	793	252	237
1913	12, 033	1, 525	969	941	2, 060	1, 717	1, 337	1, 216	795	257	241
1914	12, 000	1, 515	959	939	2, 050	1, 709	1, 330	1, 217	795	262	244
1915	11, 981	1, 508	950	937	2, 043	1, 704	1, 325	1, 218	796	266	247
1916	12, 016	1, 506	944	934	2, 044	1, 707	1, 327	1, 227	801	271	252
1917	11, 789	1, 474	926	930	1, 996	1, 667	1, 288	1, 201	768	272	254
1918	11, 248	1, 418	846	917	1, 920	1, 607	1, 242	1, 161	764	266	250
1919	11, 106	1, 380	809	910	1, 877	1, 570	1, 215	1, 139	755	262	248
1920	11, 362	1, 401	837	919	1, 918	1, 605	1, 236	1, 173	764	276	257
1931	11, 412	1, 396	829	925	1, 925	1, 602	1, 250	1, 190	768	275	259
1922	11, 443	1, 370	817	930	1, 928	1, 594	1, 260	1, 212	777	285	263
1923	11, 385	1, 358	807	934	1, 912	1, 539	1, 281	1, 220	778	282	263
1924	11, 362	1, 349	808	946	1, 897	1, 501	1, 278	1, 234	781	282	268
1925	11, 446	1, 356	811	962	1, 881	1, 474	1, 334	1, 247	792	285	269
1926	11, 534	1, 344	799	982	1, 885	1, 489	1, 364	1, 278	794	286	273
1927	11, 246	1, 315	766	942	1, 836	1, 434	1, 310	1, 234	807	286	263
1928	11, 295	1, 291	750	928	1, 835	1, 456	1, 361	1, 259	809	287	272
1929	11, 289	1, 298	732	927	1, 816	1, 408	1, 398	1, 280	808	302	282
1930	11, 173	1, 282	754	915	1, 803	1, 436	1, 340	1, 245	800	298	279
1931	11, 159	1, 255	750	930	1, 830	1, 405	1, 333	1, 265	782	297	279
1932	11, 069	1, 244	740	926	1, 841	1, 418	1, 314	1, 214	774	292	282
1933	11, 023	1, 246	745	923	1, 842	1, 393	1, 345	1, 160	769	305	287
1934	10, 852	1, 205	736	902	1, 859	1, 375	1, 348	1, 105	738	302	287
1935	11, 172	1, 265	747	924	1, 951	1, 413	1, 368	1, 158	752	307	289
1936	10, 997	1, 235	737	922	1, 904	1, 383	1, 342	1, 145	742	308	292
1937	10, 830	1, 240	742	908	1, 876	1, 314	1, 329	1, 114	723	311	298
1938	10, 745	1, 242	746	909	1, 874	1, 269	1, 289	1, 100	747	296	302
1939	10, 629	1, 229	743	899	1, 828	1, 268	1, 255	1, 096	751	290	307

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[1] Eldon E. Shaw and John A. Hopkins, Trends in Employment in Agriculture, 1909–36 (W. P. A. National Research Project, Report No. A–8, November 1938). Data for 1937 to 1939 from Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

The three cotton areas also followed individual trends. In the eastern area there was an almost continuous decline from 1,750,000 persons employed in 1909 to 1,408,000 in 1929, as the boll weevil and deterioration of the land increased the economic pressure on persons engaged in farming. Incidentally, the decline during this period of 20 years was entirely in family workers and the number of hired workers was practically the same in 1929 as in 1909. In the delta cotton area a decline of 12 percent occurred in the first decade, and then there was an increase during the second decade while farming expanded, particularly in the bottom lands. Until 1919 the decrease in employment occurred chiefly in hired workers, while the expansion of the twenties was in family workers, with hired workers declining still more. The greater part of the growth of agriculture here took the form of settlement of new family farms rather than expansion of operations on the large plantations.

Employment in the western cotton area declined from 1,227,000 in 1916 to 1,139,000 in 1919 and then increased to 1,280,000 in 1929 as cotton and wheat production was expanded in the western sections. Unlike the cotton areas to the east, hired workers in this area increased about a quarter in number during these two decades.

After 1929 the contraction in employment in all three of the cotton areas hit the hired workers much harder than family workers. Numbers of the latter changed very little, while hired workers declined 14 to 30 percent in the different areas.

The small-grain area is the one in which mechanization has made the greatest advance, but it has also seen a pronounced growth both of crop acreages and of livestock production. From 1909 to 1923 the number of family workers in the area declined only from 619,000 to 598,000 while hired workers increased from 182,000 to 210,000. From 1929 to 1936 with the A. A. A. programs reducing the acreages of crops planted and with destructive droughts resulting in partial or complete crop failures in many sections, the trends of employment were quite different from those prior to 1929. In these 6 years the number of family workers increased slightly, while the number of workers hired for pay declined a third to 136,000.

Employment in the range area and in the northwestern area increased a quarter from 1909 to 1929, with both family and hired workers rising. The largest increase occurred in California where total employment rose almost one-half during this period of 20 years.

With an increase of slightly over 40 percent in the population of the United States from 1909 to 1939, we might have expected something like a proportionate increase in employment in agriculture had it not been for the improvement in farming methods. Actually, only 1 person was employed in agriculture for each 12.4 persons in 1939 as compared to 1 person for each 7.6 persons in 1909. Had it been necessary to employ as large a proportion of workers in 1939 as 30 years earlier the number of farm workers in 1939 would have been over 17 million, or 6.5 million more than were actually employed.

FARM WAGES AND HOURS

We may well raise the question here whether the technological improvement and the displacement of some workers brought higher pay or shorter hours to those who remained. Regarding wages, the following figures give us some interesting evidence:

	Estimated weekly factory earnings [1]	Monthly farm wages without board [2]
1921–29	$25.51	$43.91
1930–34	20.28	33.84
1935–39	23.14	34.03

[1] Estimated weekly factory earnings, from U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.
[2] Monthly farm wages from Agricultural Statistics, 1939, p. 506.

It will be noted that farm wages were decidedly lower than factory wages (although, of course, the buying power of the farm worker's dollar is somewhat higher than that of his city cousin). It will also be observed that farm wages have been declining relative to factory wages. In 1921–29 the average wage per month for farm workers was equal to factory wages for 1.72 weeks; in 1935–39 a month's farm wages were equal to only 1.47 week's factory wages.

Regarding working hours, data collected by the National Research project in 1936 showed the full farm workday during the spring, summer, and fail to run from 11 to slightly over 12 in northern areas and between 10 and 11 in the eastern and Delta cotton regions for farm operators. For hired workers the corresponding hours ran between 10.5 and 12.3 for the various areas. In winter the working hours were considerably shorter but there were also fewer persons employed.

A comparison with data collected earlier by other agencies points to the conclusion that there has been some reduction in the length of farm workday since 1910, but it is not possible to tell just what this amounts to. Farm-cost accounting studies conducted in various northern States have shown from 2,700 to 3,300 hours per worker per year and, although it is hard to compare figures which come from different States in different years, no very pronounced decline is apparent. It seems improbable that the decline since 1910 has been as much as an hour a day on the average.[3]

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[3] Data on hours per workday for 1936 were obtained in the field survey of the National Research project. These are confirmed by estimates of the Agricultural Marketing Service for September 1 and December 1, 1939, and March 1, 1940. Data for earlier years were obtained from various studies of State agricultural experiment stations and of the United States Department of Agriculture. The following may be mentioned in particular: U. S. D. A. Bulletin 528, p. 8 (1917), New York State Department of Farms and Markets, Bull. 164, pp. 20, 28, 33; U. S. D. A. Yearbook of Agriculture 1926, pp. 785–786; Missouri Agri. Exp. Sta., Bull. 125 (1915), information on length of farm workday in certain counties of Minnesota in various years from 1902–31 were obtained from an unpublished thesis by George A. Sallee. Recent information for Illinois was published in Illinois Farm Economics, Univ. of Ill. (April and May 1939), pp. 242–243. Unpublished information was also made available by the agricultural economics departments of the University of Illinois, Iowa State College, and Cornell University.

Where mechanical power is adopted, it is a common observation that the farmer works longer hours than before at critical periods of the year but then puts in fewer days. In sections where livestock production, particularly dairying has been expanding, the number of hours worked per man per year has often increased. The milk cows require a large amount of work during the winter season and make for more complete utilization of labor throughout the year, though not necessarily an increase in the number of hours per day in the busy seasons. Thus the farm worker in northern areas continues to work something like 55 hours per week as an average for the entire year, in contrast to the 40- to 44-hour week of other industries. In southern areas, where there are livestock to care for the average will run lower for the year as a whole, though hours per day apparently do not differ much from northern areas during the crop-growing season.

TYPES OF TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGES AFFECTING FARM EMPLOYMENT

The changes in farming methods that have affected employement may be classified into two groups; those that increase or decrease the amount of labor required per acre of land or per head of livestock, and those that lead to an increase or a decrease in the yield per acre or per head. In crop production, the former have been of greater importance in the last 30 years, while in livestock production the more outstanding changes have been related to the amount of production per head, and there has apparently been but little change in the amount of direct labor per animal.

Mechanization on farms.—The most obvious changes in farm technology have been associated with mechanization; that is, with the adoption of mechanical power and of implements with greater capacity. The adoption of tractors instead of horses on farms has received wide publicity and in fact has probably been the largest single influence in reducing the amount of labor needed on farms. The adoption of automobiles and of trucks on farms has not been far behind. These have greatly reduced the amount of time needed in hauling as well as in making trips from farm to town. Their effects, however, extend further than this. In the first place, farm people now travel much more and much farther than they did before the advent of the automobile. In the second place the auto and the truck have done much to extend the radius within which the farmer buys or sells.

A consequence of the application of mechanical power to the farm is seen in a great displacement of horses and this has not only reduced farm labor requirements but has also permitted the shifting of feeds to the production of meat, milk, or eggs. I shall return to this a little later on.

Another phase of mechanization is connected with changes in design or size of farm implements. Tractor implements are generally larger than horse-drawn implements. But even where horses are still used, they are likely to be found in larger teams and drawing larger machines than they did 20 or 30 years ago. And finally several new machines have been developed for farm use, while others which were available before 1910 have been modified to suit a wider range of conditions and have been introduced into new areas. Among new machines may be mentioned the vertical disk plow, and the duck-foot cultivator, used largely in the semiarid areas, and the pick-up hay baler, and field ensilage cutter now used to some extent in midwestern and eastern sections as well. Another highly important new machine is the mechanical corn picker which within the last 3 or 4 years has displaced much hand labor in the Corn Belt and reduces labor requirements by 2 to 3 hours per acre. Among machines introduced into new areas, the outstanding example is the combined harvester-thresher. This was already an old machine long before 1909. Indeed a machine of this type was used in Michigan in 1837, and in California in 1854, although its general adoption did not begin until many years later. Within the last decade the wide and rapid spread of the combine has been related to its reduction in size so that it fits the requirements of smaller, diversified type of farms. It is estimated that the combine saves, on an average, around 3 hours per acre in harvesting and threshing small grain; but, of course, the exact saving depends on the size of machine, the size of field in which it is used and on other conditions as well.

Improvements in crop production methods.—The main effect of mechanization has been to reduce the direct labor used on crops per acre, although there have also been other indirect results. Changes in methods of crop production, however, have most often been related to the yield per acre rather than to the labor per acre. The development of improved varieties has been highly important. In the first place, there have been notable increases in yielding ability of some crops. Among these may be mentioned the recent development of hybrid seed corn which has spread with amazing rapidity in recent years until it was estimated that 69 percent of the acreage planted in corn in the corn area in 1939 was planted to hybrid seed, according to the Agricultural Marketing Service. It has been estimated that hybrid seed may result in an increase of yield of as much as 20 percent in this area by 1945, amounting to a 6 to 8 percent increase in the national production.[4]

Between 1909 and 1934, 91 new varieties of wheat were introduced into this country, either from other countries or by selection or hybridization. They occupied 52 percent of the wheat acreage in the latter year, and were estimated to have a potential yield increase of 9.2 percent over standard varieties with which they were compared at time of introduction. This amounts to about 40,000,000 bushels. Because of loss of soil productivity, erosion, etc., however, no such increase in the reported yields have been apparent but it is safe to say that there would have been an appreciable decline had it not been for this improvement in wheat varieties. Development of new oats varieties were somewhat similar in direction and effect to the improvement of wheat varieties.

Changes in cotton varieties since 1909 have been quite pronounced. In the first place, most of the older, long-season cotton varieties were lost because of the boll weevil, and were replaced by short-season and generally inferior varieties. But since the weevil invasion the cotton-breeding activities of the United States Department of Agriculture and of the State experiment stations have resulted in development of new improved varieties. These have not only brought better yields, but also longer staple in recent years.

It should be remembered that increase in yields is not the only purpose of plant breeding. Improvement of quality, or of ability to stand shipment is often highly important, and so is resistance to diseases such as black-stem rust of wheat, curly top of sugar beets, and so on. Thus it should be realized that by no means all technological changes in agriculture lead to a displacement of labor. Some are necessary in order to maintain the previous rate of production in the face of soil depletion, erosion, and plant pests or diseases.

Mention should be made of the development of new methods of soil management. The use of green-manure crops, which has been spreading during the last 2 or 3 decades, and the use of improved fertilizers have contributed to greater crop production per hour of labor. Recent discoveries regarding the proper placement of fertilizer relative to the location of the seed also pomises to increase yields of some crops to an appreciable degree without extra labor or expense.

On the other hand, growing concern about the damage done by soil erosion has led or is leading to widespread adoption of such soil-conservation practices as terracing and contour farming. Adoption of these practices requires a large investment, particularly of labor, and in most cases does not promise corresponding increases in production over present yields. Rather these additional amounts of labor are required to maintain production and avoid serious declines in the future.

Finally there have been important discoveries and changes in methods of combatting crop diseases and pests, as already suggested. Outbreaks of diseases or of insect pests such as the cotton boll weevil, the Japanese beetle, or the European corn borer are often quite unpredictable but cause great loss in crop production and years of research are sometimes required to discover methods of control. This again represents a type of technological change that does little more than maintain previous production rates.

Improvements in methods of livestock production.—Changes in the technology of farm production have not been confined to crops, but have also extended to livestock. Most of the improvements here have been concerned with the efficiency with which feed is converted into meat, milk, or eggs rather than with the amounts of labor used per animal. Changes of this type also affect total farm-labor requirements. Whatever reduces the amount of feed required to produce 100 pounds of pork or of milk, however, reduces in the same proportion the amount of labor needed to produce the feed. Consequently changes of this type affect total farm-labor requirements no less than would labor-saving methods of growing the corn or other feed crops.

Improvements in livestock production methods have been pronounced in three directions; the breeding of improved and more productive animals, discoveries in animal nutrition, and improved methods of combating animal diseases. A large degree of progress toward eradication of bovine tuberculosis and a high degree of control of hog cholera may be mentioned as examples of disease control. As examples of nutritional improvements we may mention recent discoveries regarding the functions of vitamines in the animal ration and discoveries regarding requirements of protein supplements and of mineral feeds. As a result of these discoveries plus the improvement in animal breeding it is estimated that production of milk per cow rose 11 percent from 1909–13 to 1932–36. In the meantime direct labor per milk cow increased only 4 percent, and when the more efficient use of feed by the higher producing cows is taken into account, we find that the total labor needed to raise the feed and care for the cattle declined about 7 percent per 1,000 pounds of milk.

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[4] Report of the Secretary of Agriculture, 1938, p. 88.

In the production of poultry products and of hogs there have also been notable improvements in efficiency of production which have reduced the total amount of labor needed to produce the Nation's food.

From this relatively incomplete list we see that there are many different types of changes in farm technology. Not all of them lead to reductions in employment. Some are necessary to avoid disease losses or wastage of land or other resources. But the general effect is to bring about increased economy of farm production, and this applies to the use of labor as well as of other resources.

To what extent have these improvements affected the requirements of labor on farms since 1909? First, some estimates may be given of the effect of adoption of mechanical power, which has been the most important single technological influence on farm employment. Second, I shall present estimates on the changes in labor requirements in production of selected major crops and livestock product, and third, we shall see what has been the trend in the over-all efficiency of farm labor and whether the estimates are consistent with the trends in employment that have actually occurred.

EFFECT OF MECHANIZATION ON FARM LABOR REQUIREMENTS

Adoption of farm tractors.—The rapid adoption of farm tractors powered by internal combustion engines did not begin until 1918, under the stimulation of scarce labor and high wages during the European war. This phase of adoption referred to the standard or 4-wheeled tractor and affected chiefly the larger farms, notably in the small-grain belt and the Corn Belt. A second phase of adoption began in the middle of the 1920's when a light row-crop or all-purpose type of tractor become available and permitted general use of the tractor in cultivating intertilled crops. In 1938 it was estimated that there were around 1.3 million tractors on farms in the United States, or about one for each five farms. In the corn area there is more than one tractor for each two farms.

It is needless to point out that throughout the period of tractor adoption there has been an almost continuous improvement in the tractor itself. Ignition systems, fuel injection, and cooling systems have been modified, and improved bearings have been adopted to increase dependability and lengthen the life of the machine. Adoption of pneumatic tires within the last few years has had the same effect and has resulted in a material saving of fuel per horsepower hour. Further, the development of the power take-off permits some work to be done mechanically that could not be before. In short, the tractor has not only been improved, but has also been modified to meet the requirements of the farm to a much greater extent than the farm has been changed to conform to the tractor. Particularly notable at the present time is the availability of smaller models of tractors, suitable to use on small farms. These may well affect employment in the South and in the eastern dairy area during the next decade or so.

Further, is was found in the National Research Project study that tractors are used by a larger percentage of younger than of older farmers. As older men are replaced by younger ones who are more machinery conscious the number of tractors may be expected to increase further.

Saving in labor in field operations.—The adoption of the tractor has brought savings of labor in three principal directions. First, there has been an increase in performance per worker because of the greater working width of tractor implements compared with horse-drawn ones. Second, present-day tractors move faster than horses. Third, there has been a saving of labor formerly used in growing feed for horses and in taking care of horses and colts.

On the conservative assumption of 1.3 million tractors operated on farms in 1938 for an average of thirty 10-hour days per year, and with an average increase of 50 percent in work done per hour over the horse-drawn units replaced, the reduction in farm requirements in field work would amount to 150 man-hours per tractor, or a total of 195,000,000 man-hours per year. Moreover, as older tractors still on farms are replaced by newer and faster models, the saving will increase further; perhaps as much as a third of the 195,000,000 man-hours just mentioned. Tractor adoption has also had other important effects on employment which will be mentioned a little later.

Adoption of automobiles and trucks on farms.—Although we hear much more about the adoption of the tractor, automobiles and trucks have been scarcely less important in their effects on farm employment. Almost all the adoption of these motor vehicles also occurred between 1909 and 1930. By the latter year there were over 4,000,000 automobiles and 900,000 trucks on farms. The number of farm trucks now is probably not far from a million. Since the automobile is used both for business and for personal purposes, it is difficult to estimate its effects on employment.

It may be estimated, conservatively, that the 5,000,000 farm motor vehicles travel an average of about 4,000 miles per year. At a speed of 20 miles per hour this would require 1,000,000,000 hours. If the same amount of transportation were accomplished with horses at a speed of 4 miles per hour, 5,000,000,000 operator hours would be required, a difference of 4,000,000,000 hours. However, no such amount of transportation would probably be utilized by farm people if they had to depend on horses. In other words, farmers enjoy the advantages of far more travel and transportation than before the coming of the automobile.

Displacement of farm horses.—It is estimated that about half the displacement of horses that occurred up to 1936 was to be attributed to the tractor and half to the automobile and truck. In 1916 there were nearly 27,000,000 horses and mules on farms in the United States, of which just over 20,000,000 were of working age. By 1938 the total number of horses and mules had declined to 15.4 millions, while the number of work horses was down to 13.1 millions.

It has been customary to use this absolute decrease in number of horses as the measure of displacement caused by tractor, truck, and automobile. A more logical approach, however, is through the change in ratio of work animals to acres in crops. During 1909–13 there was an average of 1 work horse to each 16.5 acres of crops. The difference between actual number of horses in the country in 1938 and the number that would have been required at the rate of 1 horse to each 16.5 acres of crops amounted to approximately 7.6 million head of work horses.[5] From various data it seems likely that about half the displacement through 1935 or 2.8 millions should be attributed to the automobile and truck and the other half to the tractor. Most of the reduction since that year is attributable to the tractor. At this rate displacement by the tractor would amount to 4.8 million work horses, or 3 horses per tractor and to 0.6 horses per automobile or truck on farms. With the displacement of 7.6 million work horses is associated, between 1909 and 1938, a decrease of about 1.9 million head of colts under 3 years of age, needed for replacements.

Various farm-management studies have indicated that about 70 hours per year are required to feed and care for a horse. Much less time, relatively, is needed to service and repair the tractor. It is estimated that there is a saving of about 50 hours per year in the labor required to care for the farm-power outfit for each horse displaced by these mechanical power units. At this rate, the displacement of work horses has resulted in a reduction in farm labor needed to care for the combined farm-power units of about 380,000,000 man-hours. The reduction in number of workers, however, is relatively much less because a large part of the labor on horses is spent during the winter season when there is a surplus of labor on most farms anyhow.

In addition to the above, there has been a decline in the average number of hours spent on the remaining horses. With tractors performing much of the heavier work such as plowing and disking, the remaining horses have been fed less heavily and have been supported to a larger degree on pasture. Man labor per horse has declined about 11 hours since 1909, a total of 145,000,000 man-hours on the 13.1 million horses retained in 1938. To this should also be added a saving of about 65,000,000 man-hours formerly needed in caring for 1.9 million colts needed for replacements.

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[5] See N. R. P. Report A–9, "Changes in Farm Power and Equipment: Tractors, Trucks, and Automobiles," pp. 62–63, for estimates of labor saved on farms by displacement of horses through 1935. The estimates given here are computed by the same method but are brought up through 1938 on the basis of data from the Bureau of Agricultural Economics on recent numbers of horses.

Shifting feed from horses to other livestock.—In spite of the sizable saving in farm-labor requirements just discussed, the most far-reaching influence of farm mechanization has come from the shifting of land and labor from production of feed for horses to production of feed for other livestock or of food for direct human consumption. It is estimated that the reduction in work horses, plus reduction in colts and the lighter feeding of remaining horses taken together have released approximately 33,000,000 acres of crop land for other purposes. To this should be added about half as many acres of pasture. The 33,000,000 acres of crop land is enough, if planted in crops suitable for human consumption, to support about 16,000,000 people.[6] This shifting of land and feed undoubtedly had a strong influence in preventing the Nation's food costs from rising as much as they would otherwise have done with the increase in population since 1909.

The labor released from the production of horse feed has been offset by urban labor requirements in the production of the tractors and automobiles which replace the horses. We shall return to this a little later.

Total reduction in farm labor requirements from farm automotive equipment.—The estimates of farm labor saved by adoption of tractors, trucks, and automobiles from 1909 through 1938 may be summarized as follows:

Cause of reduction:	*Millions of hours saved*
Adoption of tractor for field work	195
Saving in maintenance of power plant through displacement of horses	380
Reduction in care of remaining horses	145
Reduction in labor needed to raise colts for replacements	65
Total reduction in farm labor exclusive of time saved in transportation	785
Labor shifted from production of horse feed	530
Grand total	1,315

If we assume that the average full-time farm worker puts in 3,000 hours per year, this reduction in farm-labor requirements is equivalent to above 440,000 persons. The actual reduction in employment, however, was probably much smaller, since as already mentioned, much of the work on horses is required in slack seasons. The reduction in labor in producing horse feed did not represent a decline in employment but rather a shift to other products on the farm. Further, part of the reduction on the farm was offset by increases in labor required to manufacture and service autos and tractors in urban areas.

Shifting of labor from farms to urban areas.—There is no way to determine just what total amount of labor is spent in manufacturing farm automotive equipment and in producing fuel, lubricants, tires, and so on for their operation. Indeed, not all the labor required in such production is used in urban areas. Cotton, mohair, and solvents for paints and lacquers are produced partly or wholly on farms. It has been estimated that such materials required in 1935 a total of 20,000,000 or 25,000,000 man-hours of farm labor.

It may be estimated, roughly, that 80 percent of the retail price of automobiles and tractors consists of wages paid at some stage of their production, and that the average wage rate is not far from 60 cents per hour. If we assume, further, that the average retail price of a tractor is about $900 and that its average life is 8 years, tractor replacements would require about 195,000,000 man-hours per year. Not all of the labor spent in making tractors can be charged against field work. About 10 percent of the tractor use is for belt work which would otherwise have to be done by other types of mechanical power. If we deduct 10 percent of the 195,000,000 man-hours on this account we have 175,000,000 man-hours per year as the time required to manufacture the annual replacements to do field work. Following the same method of estimation we obtain the following figures for amounts of labor needed to produce replacements, fuel, repairs, etc., for farm tractors, trucks, and automobiles:

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[6] O. E. Baker estimates the per capita requirement at about 2 acres. See Agricultural Land Requirements and Resources, Supplementary Report of the Land Planning Committee to the National Resources Board, pt. 3 (1935), p. 3.

	Million hours
To manufacture replacements for tractors	175
Production of tractor fuel, repairs, etc	170
Total for 1.3 million tractors	345
To manufacture auto and truck replacements	580
Fuel and oil	280
Tires	130
Repairs	120
Total for 5,000,000 autos and trucks	1,110

For the country as a whole the shift from horses to tractors has clearly meant a reduction in the total amount of labor required. To the 195,000,000 hours saved in field work we may add about 370,000,000 hours of the 590,000,000 reduction in care of horses and colts; a total of 565,000,000 hours against an estimated requirement of 345,000,000 hours needed to produce, fuel, and repair the tractors. In addition to this, the shifting of labor from horse feed to other purposes that may be credited to the tractor appears to be about 335,000,000 hours, bringing the total saving to 565,000,000 man-hours.

The adoption of autos and trucks resulted in a reduction of labor needed to care for horses and colts of 245,000,000 man-hours, plus 195,000,000 shifted from horse feed production to other uses, a total of 440,000,000 hours saved on farms. But this must be compared with 1,110,000,000 man-hours needed to produce autos, fuel, tires, and so on, leaving a debit balance of 670,000,000 man-hours to be charged against the greater amount of transportation enjoyed by farm people with automobiles over that furnished by horses, or shifted from railroads to farm motor vehicles.

It should be pointed out that the figures presented in the last two pages do not represent the entire shift of labor from farms to cities. An important, but unknown, part of the relative decline in employment on farms is to be attributed to the partial shifting to urban areas of such operations as butter making, slaughtering of meat animals, manufacture and repair of farm tools and smaller implements, and of various marketing or processing operations.

CHANGES IN LABOR REQUIREMENTS ON SELECTED FARM ENTERPRISES

Estimates of the changes in labor requirements per acre of leading crops and per head of principal types of livestock have been prepared by the National Research Project. The large mass of already existing data collected in the course of various farm management studies since 1909 were utilized and current data were obtained for comparison by means of a field study of over 4,000 farms in 1936.

There has been a reduction in the average amount of labor used per acre of each of the three crops—corn, wheat, and cotton—which are to be discussed. But there have been wide differences between areas and we need to be very careful about generalizing. Usually the greater reductions were made in the areas of specialization in each specific crop. On farms producing large acreages of a given crop more attention has been given to development and adoption of labor-saving methods than where that crop is a side line. Also the farm with a large acreage can best afford large capacity or specialized equipment.

Among nonmechanical influences, an important influence on hours per acre has been the shifting of acreage from areas where labor requirements are high to others where they are low. In cotton production this has been particularly important with the shifting of acreage to the western cotton area.

Changes in labor requirements in corn production.—Corn illustrates well the difficulty in generalizing about the hours required to produce an acre or a bushel of crop. It may be harvested for grain, for silage, or for fodder. Even if intended for grain various methods are used in growing and in harvesting, with different sized outfits and varying amounts of hand labor. In the southern part of the small grain area in 1936 corn was grown and harvested for grain with an average of 6 hours of man-labor per acre. At the other extreme, 33.5 hours were used in the Delta cotton area. In the various sections of the corn area, average requirements varied from 11 to 17 hours.

Since 1909 it is estimated that the average number of hours used in producing an acre of corn declined from 28.7 to 22.5 or 22 percent. This may be seen in table 2. The relative decline was rather uniform in the corn, small grain, dairy, and western cotton areas. In the middle eastern, eastern cotton, and Delta cotton areas, however, the decline was only 8 to 12 percent. About one-fifth of the decline in hours per acre is to be attributed to the shift in acreage from high labor to low labor areas. The decrease in hours spent per 100 bushels of corn was somewhat smaller than that per acre, largely because of low yields in some of the recent years.

TABLE 2.—*Total labor used in producing corn in major areas of the United States, 1909–36*

Year	United States	Corn	Winter wheat	Spring wheat	Western dairy	Eastern dairy	Middle eastern	Eastern cotton	Delta cotton	Western cotton
ACRES IN CORN [1] (MILLIONS)										
1909–13	101.0	28.6	15.5	2.8	5.7	2.4	12.3	7.8	6.3	10.3
1917–21	103.1	28.8	13.4	4.3	7.2	2.5	12.6	9.6	6.9	8.1
1927–31	101.0	28.4	16.2	6.1	7.8	2.0	10.3	7.9	5.2	7.8
YIELD PER ACRE [1] (BUSHELS)										
1909–13	26.0	38.2	19.2	23.5	33.8	36.8	22.1	13.4	17.3	16.0
1917–21	27.2	38.5	21.8	27.0	33.6	41.7	24.0	14.0	16.7	17.1
1927–31	24.7	34.9	22.5	18.4	29.8	36.0	21.0	12.0	15.3	17.1
HOURS PER ACRE [2]										
1909–13	28.7	22.0	12.8	13.4	31.7	59.4	46.6	41.3	42.5	28.8
1917–21	27.6	20.6	11.8	13.0	28.7	54.6	45.3	40.2	41.1	26.4
1927–31	23.3	17.9	10.3	10.7	24.0	47.8	43.3	38.6	38.5	22.8
1932–36 [3]	22.5	16.9	10.1	9.8	23.2	46.2	43.0	37.9	37.6	21.4
HOURS PER 100 BUSHELS										
1909–13	109	57	67	56	95	160	210	310	246	179
1917–21	102	54	54	48	86	131	190	285	247	153
1927–31	93	52	45	58	82	134	208	320	250	132
1932–36 [4]	90	49	44	53	79	129	206	315	244	124
TOTAL LABOR (MILLIONS OF HOURS)										
1909–13	2,898	629	198	38	181	143	573	322	268	297
1917–21	2,842	593	158	56	207	136	571	386	284	214
1927–31	2,354	508	167	65	187	96	446	305	200	178
1932–36 [3]	2,276	480	164	60	181	92	443	299	196	167

[1] 5-year average acreages and yields computed from L. K. Macy and others, Changes in Technology and Labor Requirements in Crop Production: Corn (Work Projects Administration National Research Project Report No. A-5. June 1938) appendix A.

[2] Estimates based on former labor requirement studies and the National Research Project farm survey data. More detailed data for areas and for principal corn-growing States are shown in ibid., appendixes G and H.

[3] Based on 1927–31 acreage, to eliminate as far as possible the effect of drought and Agricultural Adjustment Administration program.

[4] Based on 1927–31 average yield, to eliminate effect of drought during the years 1932–36.

The total amount of labor used in raising this crop declined by 544,000,000 hours per year between 1909–13 and 1927–31 and there was a further decline of 78,000,000 hours by 1932–36. The total reduction is equivalent to about 200,000 man-years when taken at 3,000 hours per year. The number of persons affected, however, was probably greater than this because the saving in labor occurred during the peak seasons of the farm year. Further, the loss of employment fell most heavily on hired laborers who are employed for only part of the year to help out in the busy seasons.

Of the loss in employment between 1909–13 and 1927–31, slightly more than one-fourth occurred in the corn area, where the total hours on the crop declined by 20 percent. In this area the reduction in labor on corn has been closely related to mechanization. Relatively large corn acreage per farm, and large, gently rolling fields provide conditions favorable to mechanization. Until recently, however, a man could raise and cultivate more corn with available equipment than he could harvest. Hence the need for extra hands at corn-picking time. This situation has been changed recently with the spread of the mechanical corn picker. Data from assessors' reports show that there were 20,000 corn pickers in Iowa at the end of 1939 with 210,000 farms. Since most of those are used on more than 1 farm, and particularly on the larger farms, they have removed most of the need for extra hands at corn-picking time. This change has occurred chiefly within the last 5 or 6 years.

In the eastern dairy area and the middle eastern area corn is grown in relatively small fields and on hilly land. Farms are smaller than in the corn area, and are seldom able to afford large or specialized corn equipment. Thus labor requirements in these areas will probably remain considerably above those in the corn area. In the cotton area the barriers to labor saving are even greater, with small farms, irregular-shaped fields, and low wages all making for large amounts of hand labor. On the larger farms, however, a shift to larger equipment is under way. Further, small-sized, general-purpose tractors are extending the range within which such labor saving is likely to occur during the next decade or so.

The most striking technological change affecting corn production has been the adoption of hybrid seed. This has occurred almost entirely within the past decade. According to the Agricultural Marketing Service 69 percent of the acreage of the corn area in 1939 was planted to hybrid seed. Preliminary figures for 1940 show that over 80 percent of the corn acreage of Iowa was in hybrids in 1940. The percentage will probably run lower in other States, however, the effect of the hybrid seed is to increase yields by 10 to 15 percent over the displaced open-pollinated varieties. Very little extra labor per acre is required. Hybrids are not likely to be adopted so rapidly elsewhere as in the corn area; nevertheless they are being planted. It is not unreasonable to expect an increase of 6 to 8 percent in the national corn yield from use of hybrid seed in the next 5 to 10 years. This means more corn and cheaper corn; the higher yield also lowers the cost per bushel.

Changes in labor requirements in wheat production.—Wheat production is particularly well adapted to mechanization, particularly where it is grown in large acreages. Consequently labor requirements on this crop have declined sharply during the past 30 years. Wheat, like corn, is grown under a wide range of conditions which vary from the large, specialized grain farm of the small grain area to small diversified farms in eastern States. In the latter case wheat is grown as one element in a rotation and serves as a nurse crop for hay or grass crops. Widely different methods and types of equipment are used in the various regions. Consequently, there are wide variations in the hours per acre or per bushel of wheat. In the western hard red winter wheat section, the national research project field study of 1936 found an average of 2.2 hours per acre on wheat, while in Lancaster County, Pa., 18.4 hours were used. Although yields per acre are higher in the latter section, they are not nearly great enough to overcome this difference in labor requirements.

If we combine all areas from the small-grain area to the West, we find an average of 10.0 hours per acre of wheat in the years 1909–13. By 1934–36 the average was only 4.2 hours, a decrease of 58 percent. East of the small-grain area an average of 16.8 hours were used per acre in the earlier period and 13.0 in the more recent one, a decline of 23 percent.

In the western areas the largest decline in labor requirements on wheat have been caused by improvements in harvesting methods, chiefly by use of the combined harvester-thresher. But there were also important economies in the planting operations from the adoption of vertical disk plows, duckfoot field cultivators, rotary rod weeders used on fallow land, and other new implements. Likewise, adoption of the tractor has permitted an increase in size of implements.

In eastern areas acreages were not large enough for use of the combine until small models became available in the last few years. Even these can be used on but few farms in the eastern areas, though their use is undoubtedly spreading. Most of the labor saving on wheat from the corn area to the East came from adoption of larger plows, disks, etc., which were available for use on other crops.

Between 1909–13 and 1927–31 the total amount of labor used in producing the country's wheat crop decreased by 33 percent, although acreage expanded by a quarter. A further decline of 7 percent occurred from 1927–31 to 1934–36 even after allowing, as far as possible, for the effects of the droughts and the Agricultural Adjustment Administration programs. Of the total decline of 203,000,000 man-hours in wheat production between 1909–13 and 1927–31, about four-fifths occurred in the small-grain, corn, and western dairy areas. (See table 3.) In the small-grain area there was a decrease of 57,000,000 man-hours or 27 percent in spite of an expansion in acreage of almost a half. In the range area, where acreage tripled, labor requirements increased only by a quarter. The corn and western dairy areas experienced declines of 62,000,000 and 40,000,000 hours, respectively, partly attributable to declines in acreage.

TABLE 3.—*Total labor on wheat*

Item and year	United States	Corn area	Eastern dairy area	Western dairy area	Eastern cotton area	Delta cotton area	Western cotton area	Small grain area	Middle eastern area	Range area	North western area	California
Acres harvested [1] (thousands):												
1909–13	48, 075	8, 930	1, 527	4, 619	164	82	2, 215	22, 158	3, 440	801	3, 446	502
1917–21	61, 696	11, 600	1, 759	4, 320	240	151	5, 450	27, 439	3, 540	1, 972	4, 281	717
1927–31	60, 472	7, 012	1, 248	2, 342	116	26	7, 360	32, 561	2, 071	2, 411	4, 525	641
Man-hours required per acre:[2]												
1909–13	12. 7	16. 4	22. 7	14. 3	16. 0	16. 0	10. 2	9. 8	18. 3	15. 7	9. 4	11. 0
1917–21	10. 3	14. 1	21. 5	12. 4	16. 3	16. 1	8. 4	7. 3	18. 1	10. 3	8. 2	8. 0
1927–31	6. 7	12. 0	18. 3	11. 1	16. 1	16. 0	3. 9	4. 9	18. 0	6. 5	5. 3	3. 2
1934–36 [3]	6. 1	11. 7	17. 2	10. 6	16. 1	15. 0	3. 3	4. 2	17. 1	6. 3	4. 4	3. 2
Man-hours required on total acreage (thousands):												
1909–13	608, 526	146, 452	34, 663	66, 052	2, 624	1, 312	22, 593	217, 148	62, 952	12, 576	32, 392	5, 522
1917–21	637, 662	163, 560	37, 818	53, 568	3, 912	2, 431	45, 780	200, 305	61, 074	20, 312	35, 104	5, 736
1927–31	405, 662	84, 144	22, 838	25, 996	1, 868	416	28, 704	159, 549	37, 287	15, 672	23, 982	2, 051
1934–36 [3]	367, 313	82, 040	21, 466	24, 825	1, 868	390	24, 288	136, 756	35, 414	15, 189	19, 910	2, 051
Wheat produced [4] (millions of bushels):												
1909–13	682. 0	139. 3	27. 0	73. 0	1. 4	0. 7	26. 0	278. 4	42. 9	15. 0	69. 0	7. 4
1917–21	828. 0	135. 0	30. 0	62. 0	1. 9	1. 4	69. 0	312. 6	42. 2	32. 0	77. 0	10. 8
1927–31	887. 0	121. 4	23. 0	39. 0	1. 1	. 3	92. 0	435. 8	30. 6	34. 0	95. 0	11. 4
Man-hours required per bushel:												
1909–13	0. 89	1. 05	1. 28	0. 90	1. 87	1. 87	0. 87	. 78	1. 47	0. 84	0. 47	0. 75
1917–21	. 77	. 88	1. 26	. 86	2. 06	1. 74	. 66	. 64	1. 52	. 63	. 46	. 53
1927–31	. 46	. 69	. 99	. 67	1. 70	1. 39	. 31	. 37	1. 22	. 46	. 25	. 18
1934–36 [3]	. 41	. 68	. 93	. 64	1. 70	1. 30	. 26	. 31	1. 16	. 45	. 21	. 18

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[1] Based on table C–1, National Research Project Report A–10.

[2] Based on table C–1, National Research Project Report A–10.

[3] Based on 1927–31 acreage and production in order to eliminate the effects of the A. A. A. program and drought.

[4] Based on table C–3, National Research Project Report A–10.

Source: Robert B. Elwood and others, Changes in Technology and Labor Requirements in Crop Production: Wheat and Oats, National Research Project Report A–10, table 24, p. 95.

As with corn, the decline in number of persons employed was relatively greater than in the number of hours required, since the labor saving occurred in the peak seasons. In the small grain area the army of seasonal workers who formerly followed the grain harvest northward during the summer was almost entirely displaced during the last two decades.

Changes in labor requirements in cotton production.—Mechanization has made much less progress in cotton production than with either corn or wheat There are two peak seasons when large amounts of hand labor are needed. The first of these is in the spring and early summer when it is necessary to chop and hoe the cotton, and the second is in the fall at cotton picking time. Both of these operations are especially difficult to mechanize.

Between sections of the Cotton Belt there are considerable variations in labor requirements per acre. In the National Research project field study of 1936 it was found that approximately 131 hours were used per acre of cotton on farms surveyed in the Mississippi delta area as against 27 hours in the western semiarid area. Yields on the Delta farms, however, averaged 302 pounds of lint per acre as compared to 176 in the western semiarid area. Higher yield in the Delta requires more labor for picking; also climatic conditions result in much greater weed growth. In the western area larger equipment does much to reduce the number of hours, although the mechanization process is well started on Delta plantations also.

For the United States it is estimated that there was a 16 percent reduction in hours per acre of cotton from 1907–11 to 1933–36. This was caused partly by reductions within the individual regions and partly by shifting of acreage to low labor areas. (See table 4.) The average labor per bale was estimated at 271 hours for the earlier period and at 218 hours in 1933–36, a decrease of 19 percent.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated labor requirements for cotton production in major cotton areas, 1909–36*[1]

[Average per year]

Item and year	United States[2]	Major cotton-producing areas				
		Eastern	Middle	Delta	Western	Irrigated[3]
Acres harvested[4] (thousands):						
1907–11	31,759	10,483	2.041	6,480	12,374	4
1917–21	32,655	9,282	2,204	6,489	14,208	201
1927–31	41,031	8,598	2,608	8,927	19,875	532
1933–36	28,410	5,800	1,836	6,364	13,443	513
Man-hours required per acre[5]:						
1907–11	105	130	139	122	70	122
1917–21	95	120	136	114	62	109
1927–31	85	113	132	110	54	118
1933–36	88	123	130	116	50	127
Man-hours required on total acreage (millions):						
1907–11	3,343	1,358	285	793	863	(6)
1917–21	3,089	1,115	301	738	883	22
1937–31	3,493	974	345	982	1,072	63
1933–36	2,489	716	238	739	673	65
Cotton produced[4] (thousands of bales):						
1907–11	12,332	4,536	1.072	2,597	3,997	3
1917–21	11,219	3,550	1,132	2,369	3,967	102
1927–31	14,658	3,452	1,291	3,615	5,651	416
1933–36	11,432	2,832	1,055	2,955	3,791	515
Man-hours used per bale[7]:						
1907–11	271	299	266	305	216	163
1917–21	275	314	266	312	223	216
1927–31	238	282	267	272	190	151
1933–36	218	253	226	250	178	126

[1] Based on data from National Research Project Farm Survey, 1936, and from earlier studies conducted by the U. S. Department of Agriculture and by State experiment stations. Labor requirements for marketing (when cotton was not sold at gin) are excluded from the estimates.

[2] Includes all cotton-producing States.

[3] Includes New Mexico, Arizona, and California.

[4] Based on William C. Holley and L. E. Arnold, Changes in Technology and Labor Requirements in Crop Production: Cotton (W. P. A. National Research Project, Report No. A–7, September 1938), appendix A.

[5] Hours are per acre harvested, but include estimated hours spent on abandoned acreage. See ibid., appendix E.

[6] Less than 500,000.

[7] 500-pound bale, gross weight (includes bagging and ties and contains about 478 pounds lint). Labor on abandoned acreage is included.

There has been relatively little change in hours per acre of cotton in the eastern or Delta cotton areas. Principal variations have come from year to year fluctuations in yield, which affects requirements in picking the crop. The greatest decline occurred in the western cotton area. Most of this resulted from use of larger equipment and more power, but there was also a relative increase in acreage in the western part where labor requirements were lowest.

Total labor used in producing of cotton was estimated at approximately, 3,300,000,000 man-hours in 1907–11 as compared to 3,500,000,000 in 1927–31. The figure for 1933–36 was a quarter lower because of drought and the Agricultural Adjustment Administration programs. These figures, however, hide larger movements in individual areas. Between 1907–11 and 1927–31 cotton acreage declined 18 percent in the eastern cotton area and increased from 30 to 60 percent in the middle-eastern, Delta, and western cotton areas, the largest increase being in the latter.

From 1907–11 to 1927–31 there was a net increase of 150,000,000 man-hours in cotton production. This, however, included increases of 209,000,000 man-hours in the western cotton area, 189,000,000 in the Delta, and 60,000,000 in the middle-eastern area. In the irrigated sections there was an increase from practically nothing to over 60,000,000 man-hours per year. On the other hand, there was a decline of 384,000,000 man-hours in the eastern cotton area. The contraction in cotton production after 1931 hit the western, middle-eastern, and eastern cotton areas hardest, with acreages declining 46, 41, and 38 percent, respectively, by 1939. In the three Delta States the decline was 33 percent, while in the irrigated sections (of which California is the most important) there was actually an increase.

Some further reduction in the labor per acre in cotton production seems likely within the next few years. In western areas mechanization is already well advanced and the process is under way in the Delta. On the smaller farms of the old cotton States adoption of larger equipment is more difficult but even here there are opportunities which are pretty sure to be taken advantage of when alternative employment appears for the people now working in the cotton fields.

Changes in livestock production related to employment.—Livestock production is, for the most part, much more difficult to mechanize than is crop production. It is true that adoption of milking machines and litter carriers on larger dairy farms, and of self-feeders in hog and steer feeding have helped reduce the labor needed for some operations. But the most important changes in livestock production have been related to the production per head and to feed consumption per unit of product rather than labor per animal. These changes, however, affect the amounts of labor needed to produce livestock products for the Nation no less than would a direct reduction in labor per cow, per hen, or per hog. Thus, feed requirements for dairy cows can be divided into two parts; that needed for body maintenance and that required for milk production. Feed requirements rise more or less in proportion to milk production. But a cow which produces 6,000 pounds of milk per year requires but little more feed for body maintenance and but little more labor or shelter than does one which produces 3,000 pounds. Consequently, the higher producing animals are more efficient in use of feed as well as of labor.

During the last 30 years there have been pronounced improvements in the output per milk cow and also in production by some other farm animals, particularly in egg production. Production per milk cow has risen approximately 11 percent since 1909–13, while labor requirements are estimated to have increased only about 4 percent. Thus direct labor per 1,000 pounds of milk has declined some 6 or 7 percent.

Dairy production is one of the few farm enterprises that has expanded notably in the period we are considering. From 17.3 million cows milked in 1909–13 there was an increase to 24.2 million in 1932–36. Hours per milk cow in the meantime increased from an estimated 135 to 140. Including labor spent in care of bulls and of replacement stock, the total labor spent annually on the enterprise increased from 2.6 to 3.7 billion man-hours. (See table 5.) This great increase in labor requirements, however, has been accompanied by relatively little increase in number of persons employed. Since dairying requires much work in winter, its expansion has brought more complete utilization of available labor rather than the employment of a greater number of persons.

TABLE 5.—*Labor used on all dairy cattle, total and per 5,000 pounds of milk*

	1909–13	1917–21	1927–31	1932–36
Hours on cows (millions)	2,341	2,730	2,991	3,378
Raising calves and heifers (millions)	149	174	188	216
Care of bulls (millions)	61	70	76	85
Total man-hours (millions) [1]	2,551	2,975	3,255	3,679
Milk production (million pounds)	65,894	74,978	97,497	102,543
Hours per 5,000 pounds milk on all dairy cattle [1]	194	198	167	179
Producing feed [2]	58	58	54	56
Total hours	252	256	221	235
Feed per 5,000 pounds milk (pounds):[2]				
Concentrate	1,719	1,616	1,603	1,535
Dry roughages	7,409	6,768	6,134	6,512
Silage	1,057	3,439	2,995	3,071
Land to grow above feed per 5,000 pounds milk (acres) [2]	4.34	4.17	3.87	3.99

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[1] From National Research Project Report (unpublished) Changes in Technology and Labor Requirement in Livestock Production: Dairying by R. B. Elwood, A. A. Lewis and R. A. Struble, table 25 (mimeographed).

[2] Ibid., table 27 (mimeographed).

Some idea of the relative importance of the enterprise may be obtained from the fact that, including care of replacement stock and of bulls, it provided nearly half again as much employment as the cotton crop in 1932–36, one and six-tenths times as much as the corn crop, and over five times as much as the wheat and oats crops combined. Further, the enterprise has expanded to a marked degree in the corn, small grain, range, and Pacific areas, where mechanization of crop production has reduced the need for labor on crops.

It was mentioned above that higher production per cow has reduced to some extent the feed requirements per unit of product. This, however, has not been the only source of economy of feed. Recent discoveries in animal nutrition have also been of consequence. Not only dairy production but also poultry, hog, and beef production have profited from discoveries regarding the animals' needs for proteins, mineral elements, and for vitamins. It is not possible at present to estimate the influence of each type of improvement, but in dairy production the combined results of better breeding and better feeding have reduced the land needed to produce feed per 5,000 pounds of milk from an estimated 4.34 acres to 3.99 acres, and has reduced the labor needed to raise such feed by 1.9 hours. This amounts to 37,000,000 man-hours on the 1927–31 volume of milk. Similar economics have occurred in hog and in poultry production.

TRENDS IN THE OVER-ALL PRODUCTIVITY OF FARM LABOR

How are the increases in labor efficiency on major enterprises related to the decline in farm employment? For the country as a whole the amount of labor required to grow an acre of corn declined 22 percent since 1909–13. For wheat the decline was 52 percent and on cotton it was 16 percent, while there was a slight increase in the labor per cow. In each case production per man-hour increased. Employment, however, has been affected not only by labor efficiency on these enterprises, but also by the combinations in which they were combined in the farm organization and by the total demand for farm produce.

Changes in organization of the farm.—It was previously said that such enterprises as the dairy, which utilize labor in slack seasons, can often be enlarged or added to the farm without requiring added workers, bringing an increase in output per worker. On the other hand, there is much work about a farm, such as fence repairs, weed cutting, wood chopping, etc., that does not yield directly marketable products. This overhead labor probably amounts to about a third of the total work done on the average farm. Work of this kind has apparently declined less than the hours per acre of corn or wheat.

Other causes for changes in employment are found in the increased acreage per farm on the one hand, and in development of intensive types of farming, such as vegetable farms, poultry farms, etc., on the other. In some individual areas one of these influences has prevailed, and in some, another. For the country as a whole the organization of the average farm has changed much less than is sometimes supposed. The average farm in 1929 included about 13 percent more acres of crops than in 1909, and 10 percent more animal units. It utilized capital goods (i. e., excluding land) which at current prices were valued at about $1,000 more than in 1909. But this overstates the actual change because price levels of farm equipment were higher in recent years. Physically, the present day capital goods differed from those in 1909 in that they included mechanical power units as well as horses, plus somewhat larger implements and a few additional implements. The labor element of the average farm had contracted by 8 percent between 1909 and 1929, with most of the decline during the war, from 1916 to 1919.

It is noteworthy that the greater part of the shrinkage in employment per average farm occurred in family labor and is related to the declining size of farm family. Unpaid family workers per farm averaged 1.52 in 1909, as compared to 1.35 in 1929, and around 1.3 in 1939. Hired workers, on the other hand, remained practically unchanged from 1909 to 1929 at 0.46 to 0.48 per farm, and then declined during the depression to 0.38 during the 1930's.

The number of farms in the country (if we exclude those providing only incidental employment) was almost the same in 1929 as in 1909. During the depression, however, there was a tendency to start part-time farms and to reoccupy abandoned farms in some areas. Consequently, the number increased about 5 percent by 1935.[7] For the period as a whole, there were increases in the Delta and western cotton areas, the western dairy area, the small-grain area, and regions to the west. In the corn area and to the east there was generally a decline in numbers of farms up to 1929 and then some recovery during the depression.

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[7] See National Resources project report A–8, Trends in Employment in Agriculture—1909–36, by Eldon E. Shaw and John A. Hopkins, 1938, appendix B, pp. 93–115.

In Iowa it is interesting to note from table 6 that the number of farms reported by assessors has been remarkably stable since 1925. This is true, not only for the whole State, but for each crop reporting district. An exception, however, is that small declines occurred in the rough, southern Iowa districts since 1934.

TABLE 6.—*Number of Iowa farms reported annually by assessors, by crop reporting districts, 1925–39* [1]

Year	State total	North-west	North Central	North-east	West Central	Central	East Central	South-west	South Central	South-east
1925	210, 899	22, 771	21, 110	25, 901	26, 018	28, 394	24, 231	18, 637	21, 025	22, 812
1926	211, 637	22, 733	21, 260	26, 198	25, 935	28, 277	24, 352	18, 582	21, 399	22, 901
1927	210, 108	22, 657	21, 219	25, 844	26, 021	28, 154	24, 180	18, 580	21, 024	22, 429
1928	210, 310	22, 764	21, 003	26, 019	26, 170	28, 018	24, 037	18, 488	21, 285	22, 526
1929	203, 506	22, 671	20, 962	25, 746	25, 967	27, 863	23, 797	18, 387	20, 942	22, 171
1930	213, 993	23, 087	21, 544	26, 322	26, 565	28, 380	24, 525	19, 103	21, 760	22, 707
1931	212, 246	22, 919	21, 430	26, 286	26, 367	28, 336	24, 237	18. 766	21, 513	22, 392
1932	212, 236	22, 708	21, 397	26, 203	26, 364	28, 192	24, 226	18, 941	21, 774	22, 424
1933	213, 769	22, 863	21, 562	26, 225	26, 614	28, 528	24, 327	19, 157	22, 055	22, 438
1934	215, 167	22, 966	21, 594	26, 481	26, 658	28, 619	24, 616	19, 243	22, 063	22, 927
1935	213, 591	22, 959	21, 483	26, 320	26, 525	28, 620	24, 458	18, 874	21, 731	22, 621
1936	212, 376	22, 934	21, 526	26, 185	26, 319	28, 100	24, 271	18, 929	21, 563	22, 549
1937	209, 737	22, 691	21, 318	26, 038	26, 094	28, 058	24, 022	18, 492	20, 915	22, 109
1938	209, 709	22, 740	21, 288	25, 945	25, 924	28, 183	24, 254	18, 482	20, 855	22, 038
1939	210, 343	22, 828	21, 382	26, 086	25, 966	28, 387	24, 294	18, 441	20, 839	22, 120

[1] Source "Iowa Crop and Livestock Statistics" and "Iowa Year Book of Agriculture", 1928–1940.

Change in productivity per worker.—With the changes both in mechanical equipment and in methods, the average farm worker in 1929 was able to handle 23 percent more acres of crops and 18 percent more animal units than in 1909. The increase in output per worker during the 20 years amounted to about 37 percent, but varied widely from year to year with the weather and the yield of crops. During the 1930's it is harder to appraise the change in over-all labor efficiency because of severe drought losses in some years and because the Agricultural Adjustment Administration programs have kept down the output since 1934. That the increase in labor efficiency was by no means ended in 1929, however, is shown by the fact that the index of output per farm worker (1924–29=100) for the 2 years 1937 and 1938 averaged 116, as against 103 for 1929. It should be pointed out, however, that 1937 and 1938 were both excellent crop years. The improvement for the whole period varied from one area to another, as may be seen in table 7. The largest increases in labor productivity occurred in the western areas where mechanization and the development of intensive crop-production methods made the most progress. At the other extreme, the eastern cotton area underwent the greatest decline in output per worker after the end of the World War. This was caused by the spread of the boll weevil and was partly regained later on.

TABLE 7.—*Indexes of production per worker, by area, 1909–36* [1]

[1924–29=100]

Year	United States	Corn	Eastern dairy	Western dairy	Middle eastern	Eastern cotton	Delta cotton	Western cotton	Small grain	Range	Northwestern
1909	75	81	77	76	75	88	72	64	75	67	64
1910	79	81	81	69	84	95	83	77	69	62	64
1911	82	79	83	75	84	125	87	84	65	64	66
1912	87	85	86	81	86	97	78	98	86	78	76
1913	81	79	78	82	79	112	91	86	67	79	73
1914	89	82	93	85	87	126	87	96	84	86	74
1915	87	88	85	85	91	100	81	85	97	86	78
1916	82	81	88	80	89	85	83	83	82	81	84
1917	88	92	88	84	98	105	94	78	84	93	84
1918	91	93	100	93	101	119	96	70	84	92	79
1919	91	93	99	90	98	106	85	93	80	82	88
1920	97	93	105	95	105	104	95	106	94	89	80
1921	83	87	91	91	85	80	87	73	90	88	95
1922	89	97	101	98	96	74	89	77	96	80	90
1923	92	100	97	99	100	75	68	87	101	93	101
1924	94	93	98	100	93	88	84	102	101	91	85
1925	99	102	99	98	99	98	114	90	94	97	97
1926	102	101	101	96	107	111	109	113	86	99	101
1927	99	97	100	97	98	102	91	99	111	103	105
1928	104	106	102	104	100	91	95	106	107	106	111
1929	103	102	100	105	103	110	107	91	101	104	100
1930	101	100	100	106	90	117	85	89	104	114	111
1931	111	115	109	103	114	119	125	112	96	100	105
1932	105	116	106	110	91	91	100	107	107	92	107
1933	100	105	102	103	101	101	89	105	91	93	103
1934	85	95	103	97	93	98	83	70	64	78	105
1935	98	113	108	110	93	107	90	84	83	89	107
1936	93	100	102	98	89	111	113	77	65	92	109
1937	121	139	119	117	113	139	144	117	77	102	111
1938	111	133	114	120	102	116	121	94	86	106	111

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[1] Obtained by dividing indexes of agricultural production by indexes of total agricultural employment. The indexes of employment are those given in Eldon E. Shaw and John A. Hopkins, *Trends in Employment in Agriculture 1909–36* (W. P. A. National Research Project Report No. A–8, Nov. 1938), while indexes of production were obtained from R. G. Bressler, Jr. and John A. Hopkins, *Trends in Size and Production of the Aggregate Farm Enterprise, 1909–36* (W. P. A. National Research Project Report No. A–6, July 1938).

The question may well be raised: Who has profited from improvements in farm technology? It is clear that those farmers who have not been able to utilize large machinery or improved methods have not profited but have lost through competition with larger volumes of farm products grown cheaply elsewhere. The farmers who obtain new economical equipment or apply the improved methods, on the other hand, usually gain until the new methods are in general use. Thereafter the downward adjustment of prices to meet lower costs may be expected to eliminate any unusual profits.

There can, however, be no doubt that the consumers of farm products have profited from the improvements in farm technology. Cheapening of farm production has meant the consumers have given smaller percentages of their earnings for food and fibers than would have been the case without the improvements in methods. The remainder is released for the production of other goods and services. The extent of the gain is indicated roughly by the fact that only one-fourth of the population is now needed to produce raw materials on the farm as compared to one-third in 1909. This somewhat overstates the change, however, since some operations have been shifted from farm to urban areas.

EMPLOYMENT IN AGRICULTURE AND THE GENERAL ECONOMIC BALANCE

For maximum welfare of the Nation each group must be considered in its relationships to the rest of the economic structure and not individually. It has already been shown that the shift from horses to mechanical power—the most far-reaching technological change affecting agriculture since 1909—had a counterpart in increased urban employment. In fact, it should be viewed as a part of a general process affecting this Nation and others as well, and not merely as an agricultural phenomenon. Most of the other social as well as technological changes of the period studied had important repercussions in agriculture as well as in other industries. Increases in wage levels or reductions in working hours in urban industries inevitably provide stronger inducements to farm people to join the migration cityward. Cheap and abundant credit leads to expansion of the capital structure of the farm as well as the factory. Discoveries in biology, in chemistry, in metallurgy, in mechanics; all may be expected to lead sooner or later to modifications of methods used by farmers in breeding or caring for animals, in types of fertilizers, or in design and performance of implements.

By no means all of the shifts in agricultural production in the recent past, however, have been attributable to changes in methods. Changes in consumers' demand and fluctuations in the export trade have also been highly important. The consumption of cereal products per capita has declined a third since 1909, consumption of sugar has increased a fourth and that of dairy products about 8 percent, while consumption of citrus fruits and of fresh vegetables has risen rapidly. All of these changes have either permitted or forced corresponding changes in farm production. And often the products in increasing favor have been raised in different regions from those which were declining.

The approximate amounts of labor used to produce farm exports, are shown in table 8. The South has been by far the greatest contributor of farm exports and in 1909–13 spent over 2.3 billion man-hours in raising cotton and tobacco for consumption abroad. Since the annual number of hours worked per man on southern farms is probably between 2,000 and 2,500, this was equivalent to the employment of approximately 1,000,000 farm workers. During the 1920's labor used in producing cotton and tobacco for export ran about 1.8 billion man-hours. In 1937–38 it was under 1.1 billion, a loss since 1929 equivalent to full-time employment for nearly 300,000 southern farm workers. Appreciable but smaller losses of exports were suffered by the corn area and the small grain area. Among major farm products only the exportation of fruits has been maintained or increased. The full impact of contraction in the exports has probably not been felt even yet. At least a part of the crops raised—particularly cotton—is held off the market for the present, and annual production has not yet been reduced by the full amount of the decline in exports.

TABLE 8.—*Net exports of principal farm products, millions of man-hours of labor used in their production*[3]

[For indicated years, 1909–36]

	1909–13	1917–21	1922–26	1927–31	1932–36	1937–38
Cotton	2, 228	1, 390	1, 731	1, 660	1, 335	927
Tobacco	136	178	175	185	143	158
Hog products:						
Direct labor	30	62	49	32	13	5
Raising feed	62	116	89	56	22	8
Wheat	82	150	89	52	(1)	33
Corn	15	37	14	8	(1)	33
5 principal fruits[4]	21	16	33	47	36	39
Total, 10 products	2, 574	1, 949	2, 180	2, 040	1, 557	1, 203
Grapes and peaches	(2)	1	2	3	2	3
Pears, canned apricots, grapefruit	(2)	(2)	4	6	7	8

[1] Labor equivalent of net imports, 1932–36 disregarded since these imports were very largely attributable to drought and did not represent a proportionate reduction in farm employment in United States.

[2] Not available.

[3] From Changing Technology and Employment in Agriculture, by J. A. Hopkins. Report in press, Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

[4] Apples, prunes, raisins, dried apricots, and oranges.

While we are discussing technological changes in agriculture we should not forget that they have been even more rapid in many, if not most other industries. A comparison was made of the change in output per worker in agriculture with that in 25 important industrial groups studied by the National Research Project. These 25 industries were divided, for this purpose, into three groups on the basis of rate of change between 1919–21 and 1927–31. During this decade output per worker in agriculture increased 15 percent. In the eight industries which made the least improvement the average rise was 17 percent. In the median group it was 34 percent, and among the eight industries where labor efficiency increased most rapidly, the output per worker rose 65 percent.[10]

Prospects for farm employment.—It seems unlikely that any great part of the loss in agricultural employment because of shrinkage of the export trade will be recovered in the near future. Not only have the governments of importing countries attempted to develop ways of getting along with the smallest possible imports, but also, the population of Europe is growing less rapidly than heretofore. In addition to this, new agricultural areas have been developed in various countries, and these will provide competition for what export markets is left. A more promising opportunity of restoring agricultural employment may be found at home.

Restoration of anything like normal economic conditions in the United States will call for a greater output of food and textile crops. According to consumption rates of the 1920's, increases in total per capita consumption of such products are not likely to be large. But there is a possibility of shifting consumption toward foods of higher quality or greater palatability, which, incidentally require more labor.

As long as seriously depressed business conditions continue in urban industries, the demand for higher quality foods is likely to remain relatively low. Further, migration from farms to cities is also pretty sure to continue at levels too low to remove the increase in farm population, even though such population is increasing less rapidly than 10 or 20 years ago. The excess workers on farms are likely to be employed at low rates of wages and in enterprises which require relatively little capital, such as vegetable or poultry production. To the extent that a greater output of farm products results from such intensification there is a depressing effect on farm prices and on the income of all farm operators.

The excess workers remaining on farms, however, will be chiefly, members of the families of farm operators. This means while depressed general business conditions continue, there will probably be a continued displacement of hired workers from farms while their places are taken by family workers.

What changes in farm employment may reasonably be expected after a substantial measure of industrial recovery? There are many unpredictable influences on employment, but assuming continuation of present and past trends, certain developments seem fairly clear.

First, the farm-to-city drift of population, which is as old as the Nation, is still in progress. Further, there are many workers living in farming areas who are not seriously needed in agriculture. These persons are employable in agriculture only at low levels of income, and may be expected to move out of agriculture as soon as other opportunities arise. Although found in all farming sections, the numbers of such persons are greatest in the Southern, Eastern Mountain, and cut-over regions. It is not possible to estimate their numbers, but it is evidently large, and may amount to 5 to 10 percent of the present number of farm workers.

The reestablishment of something like normal business conditions may be expected to improve the condition of the farm population more than that of most other classes. First, it would remove the competition of much of the unneeded labor supply backed up on farms. Second, it may be expected to increase demands of city people for farm products of higher quality and higher labor content. Restoration of employment automatically restores purchasing power of farm products and their equilibrium with urban products.

It may be pointed out that population of the country is continuing to increase, although at a declining rate. This means a larger requirement of food products. But at the same time technology is also advancing. Very little change in the number of farm workers was required during the past 30 years to accommodate a 40-percent growth in population. The future rate of technological improvement therefore, remains a critical question in any discussion of trends of employment. While this cannot be answered in any specific terms, the progress of mechanization in the South, and the rapid adoption of hybrid seed corn in the Corn Belt, and other changes in progress, leave little doubt that such progress in the next 30 years may be as rapid as in those just past.

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[10] The 5-year period following 1931 saw a decline in output per worker both in agriculture and in other industries. In the case of agriculture the decline was chiefly attributable to drought, while in urban industries it was caused by depression and part-time employment.

TESTIMONY OF JOHN A. HOPKINS—Resumed

CAUSES FOR 11 PERCENT DECREASE IN AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT SINCE 1909

Mr. **Parsons.** You state that despite a 40-percent increase of the population of the United States since 1909, the number of persons employed in agriculture in 1939 was smaller by 11 percent of the total. Will you kindly enlarge upon that statement and give the committee reasons for this decline?

Mr. **Hopkins.** The number of persons employed has declined, as you have said, 11 percent since 1909, in general the greatest decline occurring in the eastern parts of the country, while during the 1920's there was some increase in many western sections. Since 1930 the decline has been general, excepting that there was some further increase in the northwestern area. Now, the reasons are a good many. There is one simple explanation.

LOSS OF EXPORT TRADE

In the first place, of course, there has been the loss of the export trade, which takes an appreciable slice out of the farm market, and consequently a large slice out of farm employment, in the Southern States.

Mr. **Parsons.** Particularly in the cotton fields?

Mr. **Hopkins.** Particularly in the cotton fields and also in tobacco.

DISPLACEMENT BY MECHANIZATION

Second, there has been quite a lot of shifting of operations from farm to cities, a good deal of such work as slaughtering of hogs and livestock which has declined on farms. Production of butter and a good many other marketing or processing operations have been shifted from the farm to city. In addition to that, there have been a good many technological improvements, some of which have also involved shifts of employment from farm to city. The most important of these has been the process that we have come to call mechanization. And that, according to the estimates which we prepared in the National Research Project of W. P. A., has caused a decline in man-hours required on farms of something like 4 percent. Now, the number of people actually displaced by tractors and automobiles has been somewhat less than that, because the horses that were displaced required more care per month during the winter months than they did during the crop season. We add all these things together with a good many minor technical improvements, and the number of persons employed has declined something over a million persons since 1909.

Mr. **Parsons.** Farm labor that has been displaced in one way or another?

Mr. **Hopkins.** That includes the family labor as well as hired workers.

Mr. **Parsons.** There was an article sent out last year—I don't recall at the moment the author of it—it came to my desk: It treated the subject quite at length and finally winds up with this rather astounding statement, to me: That from 1929 to 1939 farm labor had been displaced 41 percent.

Mr. **Hopkins.** No; that would be quite excessive. That would involve a decline of about a million and a quarter hired men and some three million members of farm operators' families, and obviously there hasn't been any such decline as that.

Mr. PARSONS. Well, that statement was made in quite an exhaustive study that this man had put out. But taking your figures, which I think are the lowest I have heard in the last 2 or 3 years, it still presents a very serious unemployment problem. Now, I asked another one of the witnesses today if he thought farm mechanization had helped the American farmer. Do you think it has, as a whole?

Mr. HOPKINS. As a whole, probably not.

Mr. PARSONS. Has it helped the consumer?

Mr. HOPKINS. Undoubtedly.

Mr. PARSONS. In what way has it helped the consumer? Aren't farm-commodity prices pretty much as high today and have been during these years of mechanization, to the consumer, as they were before?

Mr. HOPKINS. Well, the retail prices may be, but compared to other commodities, and again I am comparing the condition now with that of 25 or 30 years ago, the price of farm produce has steadily declined relative to other prices. There is another way that we might look at the same question. In 1909, approximately a third of the population of the country was working on farms producing food and/or cotton and wool fibers for the consumption of the Nation. Now, that fraction has fallen to about a quarter. The labor income of farm people has not kept pace with the income of city workers, and the upshot is that the consumer now needs to spend a smaller fraction of his total income in paying for the raw materials. The rest of it is left to buy nonfarm products and stimulate city industry, and, in fact, I think that a rather large part of our prosperity during the twenties could be traced to the fact that city income was gradually being released from the purchase of farm produce.

Mr. PARSONS. Will you explain briefly your statement, which was right along that line, that technological changes have led to a decline in labor per acre in major crops?

Mr. HOPKINS. Yes. In the production of cotton, now, it takes on an average, for the country, somewhere around 22 hours per acre. In 1909, or in the 5-year period from 1909 to 1913, to be exact, the amount of labor, on an average, according to the best estimates we were able to prepare, was slightly over 28 hours, which means a decline of about 22 percent. The yield remained about the same.

On wheat the decline in labor per acre has actually been over 50 percent. In cotton production it has been much less, but a large part of the decline in the labor per acre on cotton is to be attributed to the shifting of acreage from the high labor areas of the Southeast to the low labor areas of the western parts of Texas and Oklahoma, where much less labor is required per acre. Now, that has been largely because of the adoption of larger equipment and more power—I mean on the corn and wheat crops. The same process has not gone so very far on cotton, if we take the country as a whole.

Mr. PARSONS. Do you feel that the migration of farm labor would present a problem should conditions return to normal throughout the country?

Mr. HOPKINS. It would present a problem; not as serious a one, but a problem that might gradually solve itself over the years, as it was in a way of doing in the more prosperous 1920's. If crop conditions should return to normal, farm employment would certainly improve in the small-grain area, which has had a great many droughts lately. The same problem exists in slightly different form in other parts of the country, where there has not been such drought, and consequently we could say that drought conditions are the cause of the unemployment there.

Mr. PARSONS. Well, it is the cause of some unemployment upon the farms, is it not?

Mr. HOPKINS. Undoubtedly, in the small-grain area and in the dry areas where there have been droughts.

TREND OF FARM TENANCY IN IOWA SINCE 1925

Mr. PARSONS. You state that the number of farms in Iowa has stayed about the same.

Mr. HOPKINS. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. That is the individual farm, since 1925. What has been the trend so far as tenancy is concerned?

Mr. HOPKINS. The number of tenants has increased, but I do not have figures here from which I could say just how large the increase has been. My impression is that there was a shift of about 10 percent of the farmers from 1926 to the middle of the 1930's, a shift from ownership to tenancy.

Mr. PARSONS. Most of them lost their farms through foreclosure, did they not?

Mr. HOPKINS. A large proportion, but not necessarily all.

Mr. PARSONS. Do you know how many of the owner-operated farms are mortgaged?

Mr. HOPKINS. No; I do not.

Mr. PARSONS. What is the situation prevailing today among the tenants in Iowa? Is there a tendency for rents to rise as crop conditions improve or prices rise?

Mr. HOPKINS. Yes; rents tend to follow prices, with a lag of from 1 to 3 years. Also, there has been, I think, some unsettlement lately among tenants because of a large competition for farms. The number of farms has not increased, whereas there has continued to be an increase in the number of potential farm operators.

Mr. PARSONS. Is there a large migration of tenant farmers within the State?

Mr. HOPKINS. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. Going from farm to farm there, hoping to get in a better condition next year?

Mr. HOPKINS. Yes; there has always been quite a large turn-over, although again, I can't say just what percentage of farmers move each year. I think that it has been slightly larger than in earlier years.

Mr. PARSONS. Well, today we have heard testimony, especially from the Dakotas, that the tendency is to crowd more of the tenants off their farms and rent it to suitcase farmers, who buy up different units here and there in that way, out from a town. With mechanization displacing farm labor and displacing farm tenants and farm owners through a system of economic operation, that is really destroying the ownership of these people. Now, does that obtain in Iowa; is there a tendency in that direction now?

Mr. HOPKINS. If there is any such tendency, it is extremely small, because as I have said before, the total number of farms in the State now is almost the same as it was in 1925. According to the assessor's figures, the number of farms in the State in 1939 was within 500 of the number in 1925. Now, then, there has probably been some increase in the number of small farms around towns. It appears also there has been a small increase in the number of large farms, and, as the total number is the same, that implies that there must be some decline in the number of middle-sized ones. Just how large that has been, we can't tell, until the 1940 census comes out and gives us the figures. It has certainly been nothing like as serious in Iowa as it has in these States immediately to the west.

Mr. PARSONS. Outside of the drought area, the speculative activity of land because of the high prices of the World War helped drag many farmers down, did it not?

Mr. HOPKINS. Yes.

GOVERNMENT FARM PROGRAM BENEFICIAL TO AGRICULTURE

Mr. PARSONS. Do you think the Government farm program since 1933 has aided agriculture?

Mr. HOPKINS. In the country as a whole or in Iowa?

Mr. PARSONS. In Iowa and the country as a whole.

Mr. HOPKINS. It certainly has improved the morale of the farmers very materially. I think it has aided agriculture.

Mr. PARSONS. They have committed some errors, there are still some faults about it. There are still some people taking advantage of this by what we might term kind of hogging things, but on the whole you think it has been beneficial to America?

Mr. HOPKINS. Yes; there is no question about it.

Mr. PARSONS. And the Farm Security program, as it has been enunciated here today, has helped thousands of farmers in the country?

Mr. HOPKINS. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. Would you agree with me that that is the best part of the farm program, the Farm Security Administration, with assistance to the individual farmer?

Mr. HOPKINS. Well, there are a great many things one should consider about the "triple A" program, as well as the Farm Security program. I don't know that you can say that either one of them, standing by itself, is better than the other one; as far as relieving human misery is concerned, I suppose the Farm Security program has perhaps done somewhat more; but striking at the fundamental causes, I would be a little bit inclined to favor the "triple A" program.

Mr. PARSONS. You believe in crop-reduction control, or, in other words, cutting the cloth to fit the pattern?

Mr. HOPKINS. Yes. However, I would try to do that in accordance with prevailing economic tendencies as much as possible; that is, to see that you are careful about your pattern.

Mr. PARSONS. I agree with that. Of course, there are two schools of thought advanced, and I do not believe there is very much difference between them when they are analyzed. One is accused of being the school of scarcity and the other is the school of plenty. We really wouldn't have a very great surplus of anything, especially farm commodities, if everybody had more or less equalized purchasing power, would we?

Mr. HOPKINS. Not if it were equalized upward.

Mr. PARSONS. That is right. Now, in the field of cotton. Of course, we have always exported approximately as much cotton, even more, than we consumed. In the field of wheat we usually export around 150,000,000 or 200,000,000 bushels. In the way of corn, we practically consume it all.

Mr. **Hopkins**. Or convert it into hogs.

Mr. **Parsons**. Or convert it into hogs. The amount we exported was not so important as the matter of byproducts; and when the byproducts cannot be exported, the price of hogs goes down. With the present situation prevailing in the world, because of the war, we are not able to make the exports we once did; but if the farmer had a higher price for what he produced, he would be able to buy more of the things that are produced in the cities, and therefore the people would be put to work to buy more of his commodities, and it would be a never-ending cycle of prosperity. The farmer is just about breaking even. That is, with the one that is making some money and the one that is losing some money but on the average just about paying the cost. We had a little less than $5,000,000,000 of farm crops in 1932, and it was a bumper crop. We have made that up with the parity payments and farm benefit payments until the farmer is getting from eight to nine billion dollars. If he had $12,000,000,000, the extra three billion would be just above the cost of production, and he could begin to pay off his interest, and that three billion would go into buying power, would it not?

Mr. **Hopkins**. Yes.

Mr. **Parsons**. Now, the most that the Federal Government has ever spent in a relief program in any year has been $2,000,000,000, and it worked miracles. Now, if the farmer had that extra $3,000,000,000, which would be profit to him, then he could go in and buy fence, machinery, clothing, fix up his buildings and paint, and all that. He demands everything that we in the city demand and buys a thousand and one things besides. He is the best spender in the world, if he has the money, isn't he?

Mr. **Hopkins**. Yes.

Mr. **Parsons**. The best way to get the farmer prosperous is to get his commodities on a parity price and then increase his output as much as possible; do you agree with that?

Mr. **Hopkins**. In general; yes.

Mr. **Parsons**. Your statement for the record is very good. I am very glad to have you here.

I think that is all, Mr. Chairman.

Chairman **Tolan**. Mr. Hopkins, I would like to ask you, and you are a qualified witness: There has been a statement filed here with this committee by a Mr. Garst, and I would like to have Mr. Kramer read it and then will you kindly give us your reaction, for the record, your reaction to this statement.

Mr. **Kramer**. I am offering for the record a statement by Mr. Roswell Garst, of the firm Garst and Thomas, Pioneer Hi Brid Corn Co., Coon Rapids, Iowa.

THE EFFECT OF THE MECHANIZATION OF AGRICULTURE UPON THE INTERSTATE MIGRATION OF RURAL POPULATION

In order to identify the author of this article, let me say that my name is Roswell Garst—that I live now, and always have lived, at Coon Rapids, Iowa, which is situated in central-western part of the State, approximately 100 miles east of Omaha and 75 miles west of Des Moines.

In my opinion, a rather rapid change has been taking place in the relatively level areas of the Corn Belt—is continuing to take place, and will continue to take place for the next 10 years. I am thinking mostly of the northern two-thirds of Iowa, central and northern Illinois, the great expanses of relatively level land bordering the Missouri River, and like areas. By like areas, I mean areas of relatively level topography which are climatically suited to the production of corn.

Until relatively recently—say until the last 10 years—corn picking was never well done by machinery. Until the advent of the stiffer-stalked, deeper-rooted hybrid varieties, corn always lodged in the fall of the year to such an extent that mechanical corn picking was impractical. With the advent of hybrid corn, these crop conditions were in a large measure avoided, and the mechanical picking became thoroughly practical.

Until the picking of corn mechanically became practical, there was no opportunity for really large-scale mechanized farming, because it was necessary to have enough teams around to pick the crop—and that number of teams was also sufficient to plow, plant, and cultivate the crop.

Now, however, horses are in no way necessary in the production of a corn crop—and literally hundreds of farmers do absolutely no work, in the growing of a corn crop or harvesting of a corn crop, with horses.

I started farming in 1916. At that time, the standard plow was either a three-horse sulky plow, plowing one furrow—or, at best, a five-horse gang plow, plowing two 14-inch furrows. Now, the common tool for plowing is either a two- or three-bottom 16-inch tractor plow. Whereas a man used to plow from 3 to 5 acres a day, 15 or 20 acres a day are not uncommon and a 10-acre day is perhaps the minimum.

Until the last few years, all corn was planted with two-row horse-drawn planters. A standard day was about 16 acres. Now, much of the corn planted on level land is planted with four-row tractor planters and 5 acres per hour is the standard planting rate.

Corn used to be cultivated with a single-row horse-drawn cultivator—at the best, with a two-row horse-drawn cultivator at the rate of either 7 or 15 acres per day. Now, corn can be better cultivated than it formerly was with a four-row tractor cultivator at the rate of 5 acres an hour.

Naturally these bigger tools work at a great deal better advantage in large-sized fields than they do in small-sized fields. Naturally, the farmer who is equipped with modern tools uses a great deal less of man-hours than was formerly used. What's more, he does actually better work because he can do it when it should be done.

And so, briefly, mechanization of corn farming has permitted greater efficiency—has permitted lower bushel costs—and is gaining because of this increased efficiency.

I farm approximately 1,000 acres of land—and I know a great many farmers in the central Corn Belt who are farming on something like that scale. It is not necessary to farm on such a large scale to get the greatest efficiency, but probably it is necessary to farm at least a half section—and is certainly no handicap to farm a section.

I have specified that this article relates to only the relatively level lands, because much of the large-scale mechanized corn equipment does not work nearly so well in rolling or hilly land.

Now, the question comes up, immediately, as to the social aspects of the mechanization of the corn-growing areas. The average size of farms used to be something like 160 acres. It is rapidly expanding at the present time, and in order to get the most economical operation it seems likely that the average size may, over, say 15 or 20 years, get up to a half section. The question immediately arises as to what happens to the half of the people who are not needed.

It seems to me that this situation is not only a situation we should not worry about—that it is actually a situation which we should be happy about. As civilization has developed through history, the better things of life have always come as a smaller and smaller percentage of the population were required for the production of food—permitting a larger and larger number to produce other goods. Of course, a fair part of the population which will no longer be required in corn farming, will actually be required in the making of tractors—tractor farming equipment—gasoline to run the tractors with—transportation—and servicing this new equipment. This is the natural absorption caused by industrialization. But there will, of course, be a surplus of manpower besides the manpower required for the above-set-out purposes.

It seems to me that that has always been so—when men quit using a cradle to harvest grain, it took part of the men to build binders, but it liberated a great many more who could make radios and lipstick.

The farm population that proves unnecessary in north-central Iowa and other similar level corn-growing areas because of the mechanization, will mostly turn up as interstate migrants, because Iowa is not particularly well suited industrially, because of lack of minerals such as iron. Part of them will go one way, part another. They will contribute to the labor resources of our cities as they have in the past. They will make more bathtubs; they will make more electrical supplies; they will build armaments; they will build highways; and do a thousand and one constructive things.

And the ones who remain, because they will be forming a larger area and have greater total incomes, will have better purchasing power to buy luxuries with than the total number had before.

They will be able to afford rural electrification with all of its appliances and create a demand for these appliances. They will be able to modernize their homes, put in bathrooms, furnaces, and many fixtures of convenience.

It isn't a dark picture as I see it; it's a brighter picture as I see it. It's a picture of greater efficiency of man-hours. It's a picture that will permit less men to do more work, which permits the spare men to construct really worthwhile things for the Nation.

It is simply the speeding up of a tendency that has continued over all of the history of the United States; that is, during the whole history of the United States the proportion of rural people who were required for the production of food has become smaller and smaller and the proportion of urban people who manufacture and who transport and who entertain, and who retail, and who have so greatly increased our standard of living gets larger and larger.

A great many people worry about the social aspect of large-scale farming. I believe it is a historical fact that a great many people worried about the social effect of the invention of the cotton gin and the thousands it would throw out of work. I believe a great many people have always worried about the social effect of any machinery which performed a given task with less hours of man labor, because of the people it threw out of work. And yet these very efficiencies, at least it seems to me, are the things that have made our high standard of civilization possible. These very things have permitted a higher standard of living and shorter hours of work to go hand in hand. I believe they will continue to do so; I can see only advantages in their doing so.

Roswell Garst,
Coon Rapids, Iowa.

TESTIMONY OF JOHN A. HOPKINS—Resumed

The Chairman. What do you think about that?

Mr. Hopkins. Well, Mr. Garst raises a number of questions there that can hardly be answered either "Yes" or "No." In the first place, I don't think you can blame on hybrid corn the entire shift in mechanical corn picking. That machine has been available since the first World War, although there were only one-row machines until the power take-off was developed—so that the power could be taken directly from the tractor in operating the machines. We know that this was developed in the late twenties, before hybrid corn. Corn pickers were being sold in Iowa in 1929 and 1930, although the depression stopped the buying for a few years. Undoubtedly the stiffer-stalked hybrid did facilitate the adoption of the corn picker. Now, then, as to the scope of the mechanization: again I think Mr. Garst is quoting rather extremes than averages. Certainly, the four-row cultivator is still the exception, even in Iowa. You see many more two-row cultivators, even driving through the cash-grain area of the State, than you do four-row machines.

There are a great many difficulties in the way of combining and consolidating farms, and it seems rather unlikely to me that the average farm of Iowa will, at any time that I can see in the future, be likely to be a 320-acre farm. It is still practically 160 acres, according to the figures of the assessors. The process of consolidation is undoubtedly under way. The number of farms in the State, however, actually has not changed appreciably. As I said awhile ago, the number differs by less than 500 farms from the number in 1925. There has been some increase in large farms, half sections instead of quarters, and there has been some increase in small farms at the other end of the scale, which suggests that there has been a decline of a few percent in the middle-sized ones.

As to employment, I agree thoroughly with Mr. Garst that labor saving is in general a very desirable thing, but it is highly important socially that we try to bring about that labor-saving process in an orderly way and not throw hundreds of thousands of people out of work.

Mr. PARSONS. On that point, he makes the statement that with the tractor and the four-row cultivator they plow 5 acres per hour. With the old double shovel, a man working 12 hours would plow about 5 acres. I used to be able to plow 5 acres.

Mr. HOPKINS. That is right.

Mr. PARSONS. So the tractor is doing as much in 1 hour as the man and the mule used to take 12 hours to accomplish?

Mr. HOPKINS. Well, not 12 hours.

Mr. PARSONS. It takes about 12 hours for a man to plow 5 acres with a double shovel.

Mr. HOPKINS. With one mule?

Mr. PARSONS. It would take 12 hours; I used to plow 10 acres a day with two mules. In other words, in the 12 hours I could plow twice as much as the tractor plowed in 1 hour. In other words, the tractor in 2 hours does what I used to be able to do in a day. Now, when you come to figure it out, you have displaced, with that tractor and two men, five men the other way.

Mr. HOPKINS. Not actually displace five men.

Mr. PARSONS. You have displaced three.

Mr. HOPKINS. You haven't actually displaced them.

Mr. PARSONS. At the same time you have to grow cash crops to buy gas and oil with, that you used to feed your horses.

Mr. HOPKINS. But you haven't actually displaced five men, for the reason——

Mr. PARSONS (interposing). You have displaced three men.

Mr. HOPKINS. Well, you haven't done that, because the overhead labor on the farm, hauling manure, fixing fences, and things like that, has been reduced very little, and the actual reduction in number of farm workers, I think, is something like the figures I have given. Also, it should be noted that the farm field day, as we found in the National Research Project's Field Survey, in 1936, runs closer to the 9 hours than 12.

Mr. PARSONS. That is all, Mr. Chairman.

The CHAIRMAN. Thank you very much; yours is a very fine statement.

(The following additional statement from Mr. Garst was received and entered in the record after the hearings were closed.)

SUPPLEMENTAL STATEMENT OF RENTAL LEVELS

Peculiarly enough, the fact that the average size of farms in the level areas of the corn-growing regions has been increasing—and the fact that a good many farm families have been forced to move to other territories because better equipped farmers are renting their farms has not seemed to have any effect upon the level of the rentals.

Rentals in north central Iowa are now and always have been in my memory on a grain basis mostly.

That is, the greatest percentage of the farms are rented on a lease that calls for the delivery of one-half of the corn, two-fifths of the oats at the elevator—and the payment of cash rent for the pasture and hay land.

In cases where the landlord furnishes half the seed oats, or pays for one-half of the threshing bill, the lease provides for one-half of the corn and one-half of the oats, and a cash payment per acre for the pasture and hay land.

These have been the same proportions that the tenant has paid for many, many years—certainly as far back as 1912 or 1914.

The cash rent has not varied as much as one might think. It still varies a good deal from farm to farm, depending upon the number of acres that are in pasture, and upon the quality of the buildings involved.

In north central Iowa, which is the region I know best, the cash rent for the pasture and hay land runs somewhere around $7 per acre. This figure has been constant for many years. On farms where the pasture and hay is relatively small, it may be as high sometimes as $10 per acre, and on farms which, because of the lay of the land necessarily have more pasture and hay on them, the average rental frequently goes down to four or five. However, this has always been the case—that there has been a variation between farms, and I would say that the rentals have not materially changed in my memory.

There seems to be an established custom about this rental business that nobody wants to change.

The landlords are perhaps afraid to ask for a higher percentage of the crop than above stated, and the tenant would feel that he was unwise to offer a higher percentage. Anyhow, I believe it has not changed.

I will put in this idea, however, and that is that the tenant now has a better chance than he formerly had in his relationship with the landlord. Actually, the landlord's costs have risen, that is, materials for fencing, for building, and for equipment of the farm itself have risen in price. The landlord's taxes are higher than ever before.

On the other hand, the tenant's operating costs have been materially reduced because of mechanical equipment. He can now cultivate and plow so much more rapidly than ever before that his labor costs per acre or per bushel have been materially reduced. The result is that the tenant now has a real opportunity to make money, particularly if he can rent a large enough acreage and particularly if he has the really good equipment which a large acreage can support.

The result is that there is a tendency for the renter to want to get more acreage so that he can have a larger gross income which will support his better equipment, and take advantage of it. The result is a tendency of the stronger tenants to get stronger—and to crowd the weaker tenants off their acreage.

Because the better equipped tenant is better able to produce a maximum crop the landlords have a tendency to want to rent their land to the sounder tenants in the community and there is quite a tendency for the average size of operation to grow even faster than there is the average size of land ownership to grow.

When the tenant fails to find a farm in the best part of Iowa, it is generally because he is poorly equipped. He then generally moves to the poorer—that is, the less fertile—areas of southern Iowa.

When getting to that area, if he cannot compete with the tenants in that area, he then moves on down into the poorer areas of the Ozark Mountains or even to Arkansas or Louisiana. As a reverse of this situation, the stronger tenants in southern Iowa gradually do get better farms in northern Iowa—the stronger tenants in Missouri get better farms in southern Iowa and you have a gradual process of putting the strongest of the operators in the best parts of the territory.

As above stated, I cannot see however, that all of this shifting has had any effect upon the rental prices of the land.

ROSWELL GARST.

TESTIMONY OF CHARLES J. KROTZ, WELDON, S. DAK.

Mr. CURTIS. State your name to the reporter.

Mr. KROTZ. Charles J. Krotz, Weldon, S. Dak.

Mr. CURTIS. How old are you, Mr. Krotz?

Mr. KROTZ. Fifty-one.

Mr. CURTIS. And where were you born?

Mr. KROTZ. Iowa.

Mr. CURTIS. Are you married?

Mr. KROTZ. Yes, sir.

Mr. CURTIS. How much family do you have?

Mr. KROTZ. Seven children.

Mr. CURTIS. All of them at home?

Mr. KROTZ. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. How old is the oldest one?

Mr. KROTZ. Twenty-one.

Mr. CURTIS. Girl or boy?

Mr. KROTZ. Boy.

Mr. CURTIS. And how old is the youngest one?

Mr. KROTZ. Six, and he is a boy.

Mr. CURTIS. How many of them are in school?

Mr. KROTZ. There are three in the grades and one in high school.

Mr. CURTIS. How long have you been a resident of South Dakota, Mr. Krotz?

Mr. KROTZ. About 25 years.

Mr. CURTIS. Where did you live before going to South Dakota?

Mr. KROTZ. Iowa.

Mr. CURTIS. What place in Iowa?

Mr. KROTZ. Well, just before I went to Dakota, in Lincoln County, but I was raised in Washington County, about a hundred miles south of that, and spent my entire life there, besides 5 years at this Lincoln County place.

Mr. CURTIS. How did you happen to move from Iowa to South Dakota?

Mr. KROTZ. Well, I had a piece of land down there that was pretty high-priced stuff, and got a mortgage on it, and——

Mr. CURTIS. In Iowa?

Mr. KROTZ. Yes, sir. And I had been up to Dakota and seen a pretty good yield of wheat taken off cheap land.

Mr. CURTIS. In 1915?

Mr. KROTZ. In 1914, in the first place, and repeated in 1915, and I thought it looked good, 2 years, so I bit off a chunk.

Mr. CURTIS. How big a farm did you buy there at that time?

Mr. KROTZ. Originally, 400 acres.

Mr. CURTIS. And later?

Mr. KROTZ. A year later three more quarters.

Mr. CURTIS. What did you pay for it?

Mr. KROTZ. The first land I paid $40 an acre for a quarter, with the improvements on it, and $25 an acre for 240 acres that was less improved, and then the three quarters, $15 an acre, was pretty much low land, in the rough.

Mr. CURTIS. Did you pay cash for this farm?

Mr. KROTZ. No.

Mr. CURTIS. How much down payment did you make?

Mr. KROTZ. Well, I had a $7,200 loan on it after I traded my equity in my Iowa farm in on it.

Mr. CURTIS. What rate of interest on that $7,200?

Mr. KROTZ. Ten percent.

Mr. CURTIS. For how long a period of time was there an interest rate of 10 percent in South Dakota?

Mr. KROTZ. Up to and including 1922; that is when I lost my farm.

Mr. CURTIS. How long did you remain on this farm?

Mr. KROTZ. Eight years.

Mr. CURTIS. How did you lose it?

Mr. KROTZ. By foreclosure.

Mr. CURTIS. What year was that, about in 1923?

Mr. KROTZ. No; it was the fall of 1922 when the proceedings were started, but it took until 1923; I stayed on in 1923 to take advantage of my year of redemption.

Mr. CURTIS. Was your inability to meet these payments due to crop failure?

Mr. KROTZ. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. You didn't raise very good crops in the early twenties?

Mr. KROTZ. No.

Mr. CURTIS. What was your next move?

Mr. KROTZ. I moved about 15 miles in the same territory; 15 miles, that was.

Mr. CURTIS. How big a farm did you buy that time?

Mr. KROTZ. I didn't; I rented.

Mr. CURTIS. When did you next buy a farm?

Mr. KROTZ. Not any in Dakota yet.

Mr. CURTIS. This farm that you rented after you lost your own in 1923; how did you get along on that?

Mr. KROTZ. Well, I had some life insurance policies that I went and borrowed on after I lost all of my holdings. And I had seed furnished by the owner of the land, and put in a crop, and as luck would have it I did hit once, but I didn't have much of an acreage in, so that the yield was good and the price was good but my acreage was small in 1924. This was in the year of 1924.

Mr. CURTIS. Yes.

Mr. KROTZ. Well, then, 1925 was a fair crop.

Mr. CURTIS. When was your next severe drought?

Mr. KROTZ. 1926.

Mr. CURTIS. What happened to you at that time?

Mr. KROTZ. I didn't raise much. I got about enough seed to reseed the place, but that is about all.

Mr. CURTIS. Did you take bankruptcy?

Mr. KROTZ. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. When was that?

Mr. KROTZ. 1923.

Mr. CURTIS. What type of farming did you do up there?

Mr. KROTZ. Well, I started in with wheat farming when I went up there in the start, wheat and oats, barley, and such like. And then I took up beef cattle in the fall of 1918. And I held them until the time of my loss and foreclosure, and they sold for about a third of what I had invested in them in the first place.

Mr. CURTIS. What success did you have in raising crops in 1925 to 1934?

Mr. KROTZ. Well, in 1926 we failed entirely; 1927 was a good crop and a fair price; 1928 was a partial crop and a fair price; 1929 was almost a failure; and 1930 was a failure; 1931 we had a little; 1932 was a fine crop but no price; 1933 the crop was pretty much a failure; and 1934 an absolute blank. And in 1936 we dried out.

Mr. CURTIS. When did you move on the farm you are now living on?

Mr. KROTZ. In the spring of 1930.

Mr. CURTIS. Have you been able to make a living on that farm?

Mr. KROTZ. No.

Mr. CURTIS. How large is it?

Mr. KROTZ. It was originally a quarter, and I rented two additional quarters in the spring of 1936.

Mr. CURTIS. Do you irrigate any of that farm?

Mr. KROTZ. Yes, sir.

Mr. CURTIS. How much?

Mr. KROTZ. Well, we started out with a small undertaking and brought it up to about 15 or 20 acres at the present time.

Mr. CURTIS. What do you raise on this irrigated land?

Mr. KROTZ. Garden vegetables and potatoes and the like; all truck crops. We sell them.

Mr. CURTIS. The boy that is 21, does he get any employment away from home?

Mr. KROTZ. Oh, yes; they get whatever work is available; I have three boys that are able to get out.

Mr. CURTIS. Have you found it necessary to ask for public assistance?

Mr. KROTZ. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. Have you received it?

Mr. KROTZ. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. When did you first get that?

Mr. KROTZ. 1936.

Mr. CURTIS. What was that in the form of, a grant?

Mr. KROTZ. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. How much in grants have you received, from 1936 up to the present time?

Mr. KROTZ. Oh, I don't know, probably a thousand dollars.

Mr. CURTIS. You submitted in your brief statement it was $1,200.

Mr. KROTZ. Well, that might be about right; yes.

Mr. CURTIS. Did you obtain any loan from the Farm Security Administration?

Mr. KROTZ. I did.

Mr. CURTIS. How big was that loan?

Mr. KROTZ. $605, the original loan.

Mr. CURTIS. You increased that later?

Mr. KROTZ. Yes; I did.

Mr. CURTIS. How much?

Mr. KROTZ. $280.

Mr. CURTIS. What did you borrow this money for?

Mr. KROTZ. To put in a crop and buy additional equipment.

Mr. CURTIS. Have you been able to keep up your payments on these loans?

Mr. KROTZ. I have.

Mr. CURTIS. And how much do you owe now, do you know?

Mr. KROTZ. The loan was originally for $605, and $50 of it was harvesting expense, and before that loan came through, the harvest was over. I had no need of that, so that was paid in immediately, and made the payments $138.75 for the 4 remaining years, and having a pretty fair crop last year I paid in a little ahead, so that I paid $235.99 above my due payments. And I had a potato crop that I had put away in storage, that I depended on to put in this crop this year and buy the equipment I knew I needed at that time, and my potatoes froze, so I had to obtain this supplemental loan in the meantime.

Mr. CURTIS. Have you had any illness in your family?

Mr. KROTZ. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. Your wife was in the hospital?

Mr. KROTZ. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. Do you have an opportunity to buy this farm?

Mr. KROTZ. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. What terms?

Mr. KROTZ. It had to be cash.

Mr. CURTIS. How much?

Mr. KROTZ. $500 for the quarter.

Mr. CURTIS. If you had owned that quarter, do you think you could have been living on it?

Mr. KROTZ. I think so; we did put in some bad years, and if it hadn't gotten any worse, I would have been able to make it.

Mr. CURTIS. Were you able to raise the money?

Mr. KROTZ. No; I wasn't.

Mr. CURTIS. Was the farm sold?

Mr. KROTZ. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. Do you have to move?

Mr. KROTZ. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. What are your plans for the future? Are you going to move? Where are you going?

Mr. KROTZ. Yes. We are going to Minnesota.

Mr. CURTIS. Did you try to find a farm you could go on?

Mr. KROTZ. I did.

Mr. CURTIS. Do you feel you can make a living in the part of Minnesota you are going to?

Mr. KROTZ. Well, we do. We will make a try at it; that is the best we have ever been able to do.

Mr. CURTIS. You were able to rent a farm up there?

Mr. KROTZ. No; I bought a farm on contract.

Mr. CURTIS. What did you have to pay for it?

Mr. KROTZ. $2,150; 60 acres.

Mr. CURTIS. And how were you able to raise the money—what did you pay down on it?

Mr. KROTZ. $600.

Mr. CURTIS. How were you able to raise $600 there, when you weren't able to raise $500?

Mr. KROTZ. Well, we raised a little additional crop.

Mr. CURTIS. Your opportunity went by?

Mr. KROTZ. I lacked the $500 last fall and—well, I don't know whether I should stop and comment on this. I had a 10-year lease on this place, see?

Mr. CURTIS. Yes.

Mr. KROTZ. Subject to sale, with the privilege of buying if anybody had made an offer on this place, and when the dry years hit us, instead of working with the W. P. A. to build a reservoir, we built our own, and that way we could irrigate some garden and build up the irrigation project and get a little better; and finally I think that the owner got wind of it, so they wanted to get us out; that, I think, is the sum and substance of it.

Mr. CURTIS. Yes.

Mr. KROTZ. But they had to give me the privilege of buying, although they knew I couldn't get it.

Mr. CURTIS. I think you have covered the points we wanted, and thank you for coming here. Testimony such as yours is a type, and in our hearings over the Nation we expect to get the type of witnesses that are involved.

I offer a statement of a committee from Red Cloud, Nebr.

The CHAIRMAN. It may go into the record.

(The statement referred to appears below:)

SEPTEMBER 16, 1940.

To the Congressional Committee on Migration From the Central States Meeting in Lincoln, Nebr.:

This committee from Red Cloud, Webster County, Nebr., is composed of Joe Young, president of the Red Cloud Chamber of Commerce and Lions Club; R. P. Weesner, merchant; and G. F. Doering, county clerk of Webster County; and this statement is made for your records:

We approve of a long-time program of water conservation which has been discussed at this meeting. It is our opinion from close observation and contact with the people who have and are suffering from drought, floods, and other abnormal conditions, that only through a well-planned program of water conservation—that of holding the water as near its source as possible and utilizing it upon the land in the form of irrigation, can the maximum of benefits be derived from our natural resources. This also included soil conservation, the stopping of soil erosion, and the tremendous loss which is sustained each year from floods on the many tributaries of the Republican River. This program must be carried out along a comprehensive plan for the entire valley.

However, there is a problem which it seems to us must be considered now, and that problem is the subsistence of our people while this program is being developed. They must have food and shelter; they must have feed for their livestock, and they must have seed for coming crops if they are to be planted again next season. Many of these people are not on relief, they have milk cows without feed.

The Farm Security Administration has been and still is essential in keeping families on the farm, but their requirements are such that any number of these cases which are entitled to help, cannot qualify for assistance, due to the exacting requirements of the Farm Security Administration. This is at least the circumstances in Webster County. There are hundreds of these cases which need food immediately and this coming winter and the Farm Security Administration ignores this immediate emergency and there seems to be no other agency to which these people can turn for help.

With the immediate problem taken care of and your long-time program of water conservation extending from the headwaters down, thereby conserving the water as near its source as possible, utilizing the water in the form of irrigation, halting soil erosion, protecting wildlife and providing for recreation—all of which can be accomplished through a comprehensive plan in which all Federal and State departments will coordinate their efforts and cooperate, we will be able to keep our people on the farms and Nebraska will eventually become self-sustaining again.

We recommend a million dams for Nebraska—not necessarily large expensive dams, but small inexpensive dams on every stream where water can be conserved.

We respectfully submit this statement for your earnest consideration and ask that it be made a part of your report.

Joe Young,
President, Red Cloud Chamber Commerce and Lions Club.
R. P. Weesner,
Merchant.
G. F. Doering,
County Clerk, Webster County.

The Chairman. This committee is adjourned until 9 o'clock tomorrow morning.

(Thereupon, at 5 p. m., Monday, September 16, 1940, an adjournment was taken until 9 a. m. of the following day.)

INTERSTATE MIGRATION

TUESDAY, SEPTEMBER 17, 1940

House of Representatives,
Select Committee to Investigate the
Interstate Migration of Destitute Citizens,
Washington, D. C.

The hearing was convened at 10 a. m., in courtroom No. 2 at the State Capitol, Lincoln, Nebr., pursuant to adjournment. Present were Congressman John H. Tolan, chairman; Congressman Claude V. Parsons, vice chairman; Congressman Carl T. Curtis. Congressman John J. Sparkman and Congressman Frank C. Osmers were unavoidably detained.

Also present were: Dr. Robert K. Lamb, chief investigator; A. Kramer, chief field investigator; Ariel V. E. Dunn, field investigator; Joseph N. Dotson, field investigator; Robert H. Egan, field secretary.

TESTIMONY OF JOHN C. PAGE, COMMISSIONER OF THE BUREAU OF RECLAMATION, DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, WASHINGTON, D. C., AND E. B. DEBLER, HYDRAULIC ENGINEER, BUREAU OF RECLAMATION, DENVER, COLO.

The Chairman. The committee will please come to order.

Will Mr. Page and Mr. Debler come forward, please?

Mr. Curtis. Mr. Page, you will give your full name, address, and official title to the reporter, please.

Mr. Page. My name is John C. Page, Washington, D. C., Commissioner of the Bureau of Reclamation, Department of the Interior.

Mr. Curtis. Mr. Debler, you will do likewise, please.

Mr. Debler. E. B. Debler, hydraulic engineer, Bureau of Reclamation, Denver, Colo.

Mr. Curtis. At this point, Mr. Debler, may I ask what branch of the Reclamation Service is handled out of Denver? What is the function of the Denver office?

Mr. Debler. At Denver we have concentrated the headquarters of all of the engineering work for the Bureau of Reclamation, which includes the preconstruction activities for the Bureau and the direction of construction, planning, and designing work.

Mr. Curtis. Do you deal primarily with new projects?

Mr. Debler. We deal with all of the work preceding the construction, from the inception of the plan to the completion of the project.

Mr. Curtis. In other words, the Denver office is more or less the field office for the Washington office?

Mr. **Debler**. It is the general field office for the Bureau.

Mr. **Curtis**. And you are in charge of that, are you?

Mr. **Debler**. Not at all. I am the hydraulic engineer. My activities are of two kinds. One is to direct the investigation of proposed projects; the other is in connection with hydraulic matters involving construction.

Mr. **Curtis**. Mr. Page, how long have you been with the Bureau of Reclamation?

Mr. **Page**. Since 1909.

Mr. **Curtis**. And how long have you been Commissioner?

Mr. **Page**. I was appointed Commissioner in 1937.

Mr. **Curtis**. And during this time you have been with the Bureau, how much of it have you been in the Washington office?

Mr. **Page**. I moved to the Washington office in 1935. It would be 5 years.

Mr. **Curtis**. We are very glad to have you gentlemen here, because the committee members have a definite feeling, especially after the testimony of yesterday, that there is a marked relationship between the problem of migration of destitute persons and drought, and the remedy for drought in various types of water conservation and irrigation. Both of you have prepared excellent statements, which will go in our printed record. I wish, here this morning, that we had time to let you go clear through your complete statements, but that cannot be done. I have already read these statements. They will be read by the other members of the committee, and there are a few things I want you to elaborate on this morning.

(The statements referred to are as follows:)

STATEMENT OF COMMISSIONER JOHN C. PAGE, BUREAU OF RECLAMATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Droughts have visited the Great Plains region periodically. One between 1886 and 1895 accelerated demands for participation by the Federal Government in conservation of the scanty water supplies of the arid and semiarid lands of the West, and in so doing influenced the adoption of the national irrigation policy embodied in the Federal Reclamation Act of June 17, 1902.

Before reviewing the history of the Great Plains area which is of special concern to the committee today, however, I think it might be well to outline briefly the conditions existing in the West which make irrigation necessary and to review the work which has been done under our historic Federal Reclamation policy.

The one-hundredth meridian makes a north and south line on the map of the United States through the States of North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Oklahoma, and Texas, passing near Bismarck, N. Dak., and Pierre, S. Dak., and between North Platte and Kearney, Nebr. East of this line the rainfall generally exceeds 20 inches annually and is sufficient for crop production. West of the line, except for high mountains and a narrow strip along the northern Pacific coast the rainfall generally is 20 inches or less, insufficient for normal crop production. In this western arid and semiarid section are 153,600,000 acres of land which on the average receive less than 10 inches of rain a year, and 588,700,000 acres which receive between 10 and 20 inches. A total of 39 percent of the land area of the United States, therefore, receives too little rainfall for a safe general agriculture unless water can be supplied artificially by irrigation works.

Since it was established, the Bureau of Reclamation has, in the 17 States which lie wholly or in part west of the one-hundredth meridian, constructed irrigation works to reclaim 2,500,000 acres and to provide a dependable water supply to 1,500,000 acres partially irrigated and settled through other means. On the lands made newly habitable by this construction, almost a million people make their homes on more than 50,000 farms and in some 250 villages and towns which have grown up on these projects. It is notable that these results have been achieved by the expenditure of about $250,000,000, all of which is reimbursable, contracts with the water users having been written under which the cost of the construction will be returned to the United States without interest.

These States of the high plains were settled originally under the homestead laws which embodied a land-settlement policy appropriate in the humid areas but wholly inadequate to the needs of the semiarid and arid territories. Men of vision who were familiar with the western country pointed out the inadequacy of the homestead laws and the need for some other plan of settlement and development based on integration of grazing and irrigation. The change in policy, however, was not made until much too late to prevent the creation of the problem we now face in the Great Plains.

By 1886, when the drought I mentioned at the opening of this statement set in, much land had been plowed in the high plains and during the trying years which followed thousands of families migrated. They did but join the multitudes which were streaming west to a frontier which still was open and their tragedies mingled and were lost in a greater drama. By 1902, when the reclamation law was enacted, however, it was generally recognized that irrigation as essential to general farming in the arid and semiarid region and for close settlement of any considerable part of the West. The recognition of these facts and the institution of a Federal irrigation program, however, did not prevent expansion of settlement in the Great Plains during a later series of wet years and under the spur of wartime prices for wheat. When in 1930 the extended and critical drought which still is with us set in in this region, the stage thus had been set for a greater human tragedy.

The impact of the drought on the people of the Great Plains and of other western areas, for the drought was not confined alone to the Great Plains, was indeed staggering. Like oak leaves in an autumn wind, some held on more firmly than others, but with the first blast a few were scattered and as the storm rose and fell there were flurries of those that had been shaken loose. The great dust storms of 1934 which threw a pall over all of eastern United States, together with the stream of jalopy caravans on the highways, brought a realization that the agriculture of this region was out of balance with nature, and that major readjustments of land-use programs were overdue. Not all of the migrations from the Great Plains, especially the southern part of the area so designated, have resulted from drought. I believe it is safe to say, however, that drought is the major factor in the dislodgment of population in the northern Great Plains and that it has contributed to the population pressure which is being relieved by migrations from the southern Great Plains as well. A number of studies have been made of the land-use adjustments which are needed in this area. The report of the President's Great Plains Committee and the several reports of the Northern Great Plains committee are notable results of these investigations.

It has been most difficult to obtain reliable figures on the number of families who have joined in interstate migrations as a result of the drought. In some areas there have been other influences, such as mechanization of cotton plantations. Others who have made original studies of this question may provide the best information. I have made some investigations, however, which may be pertinent. For the first time in the history of the States of this region, the 1940 census is showing a net loss in population in the Great Plains area. The following tabulation is self-explanatory and will, I believe, interest the committee.

Loss of population in Great Plains,[1] 1930–40

State	Number of counties	Counties showing decreases	Net loss in population	Percentage of decrease
Kansas	105	90	82,184	4.4
Nebraska	93	77	64,495	4.7
North Dakota	53	43	41,155	6.0
Oklahoma	77	48	61,603	2.6
South Dakota	69	61	52,877	7.6
Total	397	319	302,314	----------

[1] Preliminary census reports indicate that a majority of the 101 counties in western Texas classified as in the Great Plains States showed losses in population. Practically all nonirrigated counties in the eastern parts of Montana, Wyoming, Colorado, and New Mexico, counted as part of the Great Plains, likewise showed decreases.

While the increase in population for the United States as a whole in the decade covered by the 1940 census will approximate 7 percent, the increase in the population of the 11 Mountain and Pacific States, generally considered the irrigation States, apparently will approximate 14 percent or more. It is especially significant, therefore, that in typical counties devoted to dry farming in the Western States the 1940 census shows substantial losses in population during the 10-year period of drought. The following table will illustrate this point.

Trend of population in typical dry-farm counties west of one-hundredth meridian

[Based on United States census reports; 1940 figures preliminary]

	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940
Colorado:					
Cheyenne	501	3, 687	3, 746	3, 723	2, 967
Lincoln	926	5, 917	8, 273	7, 850	5, 912
Baca	759	2, 516	8, 721	10, 570	6, 190
Kansas:					
Ford	5, 497	11, 393	14, 273	20, 647	17, 183
Sheridan	3, 819	5, 651	5, 484	6, 038	5, 310
Phillips	14, 442	14, 150	12, 505	12, 159	10, 349
Nebraska:					
Fillmore	15, 087	14, 674	13, 671	12, 971	11, 396
Cherry	6, 541	10, 414	11, 753	10, 898	9, 627
Frontier	8, 781	8, 572	8, 540	8, 114	6, 413
North Dakota:					
Dunn	(1)	5, 302	8, 828	9, 566	8, 366
Mountrail	(1)	8, 491	12, 140	13, 544	10, 483
Grant	(1)	(1)	9, 553	10, 134	8, 265
Oklahoma:					
Canadian	(1)	23, 501	22, 888	28, 115	27, 311
Cimarron	(1)	4, 553	13, 436	5, 408	3, 655
Custer	(1)	23, 231	18, 736	27, 517	23, 054
Oregon:					
Gilliam	3, 201	3, 701	3, 960	3, 467	2, 830
Sherman	3, 477	4, 242	3, 826	2, 978	2, 328
South Dakota:					
Harding	(1)	4, 228	3, 953	3, 589	2, 997
Haakon	(1)	(1)	4, 596	4, 679	3, 506
Lyman	2, 632	10, 848	6, 591	6, 335	5, 039
Utah: [2]					
Tooele	7, 361	7, 924	7, 965	9, 413	9, 064
Juab	10, 082	10, 702	9, 871	8, 605	7, 403
Wyoming: [2]					
Campbell	(1)	(1)	5, 233	6, 720	5, 977
Lincoln	(1)	(1)	12, 487	10, 894	10, 263

[1] Counties as now constituted not in existence.
[2] Counties have small areas under irrigation.

The apparent discrepancy between the statement that the 11 far Western States gained in population at twice the national average rate between 1930 and 1940 and the figures which showed that typical dry-farmed counties in the semiarid and arid regions lost in population is explained, of course, by the fact that almost uniformly the irrigated areas of the West have continued their unbroken growth. This point is illustrated by the following table showing the population growth in typical counties of these Western States in which lie irrigation projects, most of them constructed by the Federal Government under the reclamation laws.

Trend of population in typical irrigated counties, 1900–40 [1]

[Based on United States census reports; 1940 figures preliminary]

	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940
Arizona:					
Maricopa	20, 457	34, 488	89, 576	150, 970	183, 356
Yuma	4, 145	7, 733	14, 904	17, 816	19, 227
California: Imperial [1] [2]	(3)	13, 591	43, 453	60, 903	59, 651
Colorado:					
Delta	5, 487	13, 688	13, 668	14, 204	16, 564
Mesa	9, 267	22, 197	22, 281	25, 908	33, 770
Montrose	4, 535	10, 291	11, 852	11, 742	15, 412

Footnotes at end of table.

Trend of population in typical irrigated counties, 1900–40—Continued

	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940
Idaho:					
Ada	11, 559	29, 088	35, 213	37, 925	50, 105
Canyon	7, 497	25, 323	26, 932	30, 930	40, 910
Montana:					
Phillips [4]	(3)	(3)	9, 311	8, 208	7, 865
Teton	5, 080	9, 546	5, 870	6, 068	6, 893
Nevada:					
Churchill	830	2, 811	4, 649	5, 075	5, 302
Lyon	2, 268	3, 568	4, 078	3, 810	4, 144
Nebraska:					
Scottsbluff	2, 552	8, 355	20, 710	28, 644	33, 875
Sioux [5]	2, 055	5, 599	4, 528	4, 667	4, 257
Merrill [5]	4, 584	4, 584	9, 151	9, 950	9, 425
New Mexico: Dona Ana	10, 187	12, 893	16, 548	27, 455	30, 374
Oregon:					
Klamath	3, 970	8, 554	11, 413	32, 407	40, 366
Malheur	4, 203	8, 601	10, 907	11, 269	19, 766
South Dakota: Butte [8]	2, 907	4, 993	6, 819	8, 589	7, 996
Texas: El Paso [6]	24, 886	52, 599	101, 877	131, 597	130, 895
Utah:					
Utah	32, 456	39, 942	40, 792	49, 021	57, 437
Weber	25, 239	35, 179	43, 463	52, 172	56, 717
Washington: Kittitas	9, 704	18, 561	17, 737	18, 154	20, 104
Wyoming:					
Big Horn	4, 328	8, 886	12, 105	11, 222	12, 928
Fremont	5, 357	11, 822	11, 820	10, 490	16, 113
Goshen	(3)	(3)	8, 064	11, 754	12, 185

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[1] Irrigated principally by Federal reclamation projects except in the case of Imperial County, Calif. where supplemental water will be supplied by the All-American Canal. The census year given is that nearest before water was first furnished by Federal works.

[2] 1940 census figures are not immediately available for other irrigated counties in California.

[3] Not available. County as now constituted not in existence.

[4] Dry-farming areas show principal decreases.

[5] Less than 10 percent of farm area irrigated.

[6] City of El Paso showed loss, but irrigated areas recorded gain.

Let us examine more closely these figures with respect to a single county—Scottsbluff County, Nebr., which lies in the heart of the Great Plains. In 1900 Scottsbluff County had 2,552 residents. It was at that time largely a county of dry farming and cattle raising. The North Platte Federal reclamation project was begun in 1905. By 1910 the population of Scottsbluff County had increased to 8,355; by 1920 to 20,710; by 1930 to 28,644; and through the 10-year drought by 1940 to 33,875, a gain of about 13 times. The increase from 1930 to 1940 was 18.3 percent as compared with a net loss for the whole State of Nebraska of 4.7 percent. There are irrigated in Scottsbluff County now 190,000 acres. At least 80 percent of the population there derives its income directly or indirectly from irrigated agriculture. The only industries are those engaged in processing farm products. The city of Scottsbluff, the largest municipality in the county, reflected the stability of the farming area. Its population increased 41.5 percent in the last 10 years.

Another example might be closer—Malheur County, Oreg., a county formerly with a small irrigated area in which during the past decade the Bureau of Reclamation has developed its Owyhee and Vale projects. In 1910 the population of Malheur County was 8,601; in 1920 it was 10,907; in 1930 it was 11,269. These figures cover a score of years of normal growth of population in the small irrigated area of the county. In 1940, however, the population of Malheur County jumped to 19,766, a direct reflection of the development of new irrigated lands. This development is still in progress and it is safe to predict that during the next 10 years further remarkable growth will be noted. In the table of irrigated counties above, it will be noted that there are surges in the population increases in the various counties and that these surges do not occur in the same decade. These coincide with the development of new lands by irrigation and are thus explained.

If one compares the population records for irrigation counties, one with another, and then contrasts these figures with the records of the dry farm counties, the importance of irrigation in the development and the secure growth of these Western States becomes clear.

It might be well at this point to discuss more specifically the drought of the last decade. It has not been one long, continuous period of no rainfall but rather a period of relatively low rainfall. The significance of this fact is found, in my opinion, in the averages rather than in the extremes of the record. Not all localities afflicted by the drought have suffered with equal severity at all times, and indeed in some areas where the drought has been severe the rainfall in individual years exceeded the long-time average. The deficiency of moisture in the soil and subsoils, however, makes the relief furnished by a year of normal or even abnormal rainfall of short duration. Variations from the normal of 2 or 3 inches in areas where the average rainfall is barely sufficient may bring a disaster of a severity that would not be matched in a more humid region by a drought constituting a variation from the normal for that area of 10 inches.

For the information of the committee I have worked up a table showing the rainfall record of typical areas in the Great Plains region during this 10-year period. While the year 1940 is not included, it too, is a dry year, in some areas a year of severe drought. Note the extremes which dealt the severe blows of 1934 and 1936.

Precipitation in typical Great Plains area, 1930–39

[United States Weather Bureau Comparative Data]

Year [1]	Nebraska Central	South Dakota Middle [2]	Kansas Western [3]	Montana Eastern [4]	Wyoming Eastern [4]	Colorado State [4]	Texas Western [5]	Oklahoma Western [4]	New Mexico [4]	North Dakota Western [6]
	Inches	*Incehs*	*Inches*	*Inches*	*Inches*	*Inches*	*Inches*	*Inches*	*Inches*	*Inches*
1930	27.83	17.75	22.91	11.17	14.70	17.32	14.27	23.46	14.64	13.36
1931	17.85	14.25	15.66	8.27	11.57	14.03	18.16	25.57	18.32	12.41
1932	20.02	18 34	17.00	15.39	13.31	14.17	22.68	26.24	16.20	16.71
1933	20.47	12.68	17.90	12.99	12.16	15.16	11.29	19.53	12.83	13.59
1934	13.71	9.71	11.14	7.17	10.88	10.89	10.39	20.62	10.08	6.60
1935	22.24	15.25	15.29	11.77	12.28	15.81	15.49	23.54	14.85	14.91
1936	14.42	8.98	13.74	8.02	13.13	16.06	16.61	18.42	13.50	8.18
1937	18.34	15.21	12.68	10.76	15.53	14.59	16.08	19.90	15.00	13.63
1938	20.51	16.31	17.92	15.24	15.26	19.35	16.13	24.79	14.62	16.13
1939	16.67	15.26	12.79	12.64	10.27	10.68	14.75	19.57	13.22	13.01
Average (10 years)	19.2	14.3	15.7	11.44	12.9	14.80	15.58	22.16	14.32	12.95
	1876–1939	*1892–1939*	*1887–1939*	*1895–1939*	*1892–1939*	*1897–1939*	*1889–1939*	*1889–1939*	*1889–1939*	*1889–1939*
Average	22.3	17.0	18.7	14.74	14.01	16.38	16.66	25.52	14.43	15.07
Average departure from normal	3.1	2.7	3.0	3.2	1.1	1.58	1.12	3.44	.11	2.12

[1] The average deficiency for central Nebraska is typical of the entire State, although there have been variations from year to year. In 1939, the departure from normal precipitations was 8.69 inches in the eastern division; 3.1 in central Nebraska; and 4.54 inches in the western area.

[2] There is relatively little variation in South Dakota areas.

[3] Precipitation in Kansas ranges from a normal of 34.6 inches in the eastern part of the State to 18.7 inches in the western area.

[4] Eastern areas of these States are located in Great Plains. High mountain areas of Colorado and New Mexico offset low precipitation in drought areas.

[5] Certain counties in western Oklahoma and Texas showed a much greater rainfall than others.

[6] North Dakota's eastern area shows a long-time average of less than 20 inches.]

Recalling now that the census figures show a net loss in population in the Great Plains area during the decade 1930–40, it is interesting to note that the bulletin, The People of the Drought States, issued in 1937 by the Works Progress Administration, showed that the migration from and the migration to (plus the births) the drought areas between 1930 and 1935 were about equal. It is evident that the great migration set in during and after the critical drought of 1934. Not all of the people who left these areas went westward, of course, but between July 1, 1935, and January 1, 1940, more than 180,000 persons from the Great Plains who were "in need of manual employment" were checked at the border-patrol stations of California alone. Well-founded estimates indicate that about 230,000 persons entered the States of Washington, Oregon, and Idaho from the Great Plains in the 10-year period from 1930 to 1940. These estimates do not indicate that the families entering the Pacific Northwest were destitute on leaving the Great Plains, but it may be safely assumed that they had not salvaged much when they abandoned their homes and made the journey westward in the old and secondhand automobiles which cluttered the roads in those years.

The migration from the Great Plains owing to drought was not the only one in progress during the time, as has been indicated previously.

Large numbers of homeseekers entered California, Oregon, Idaho, and Washington; not all have remained in the States which were their first or even their second destinations. A population pressure has been built up in all the Western States as a result of interstate migration of people, high percentages of them indigent, in search of homes which they have not found. In support of this I note the fact that for every likely farmstead the Bureau of Reclamation has opened for settlement during this period there has been a rush of applicants. Those who have applied and who have high qualifications run many times the number of opportunities offered, sometimes as much as 10 to 1. It is common knowledge that many who have found places to live in the Western States are occupying marginal lands or settlements with marginal opportunities to make decent livings. In other words, to a large extent the migration of the past decade has been a flight from pillar to post, from marginal lands to marginal lands.

There are other spots of population pressures which cause significant interstate migrations. One that should be noted is in Utah. Multiplication of a people there has rendered the productive land area of the State inadequate to occupy and supply properly the rural population. Many irrigated farming areas elsewhere are overcrowded, and in a desert country relief from such conditions, except when unused water resources remain for expansion of irrigation, must come through a migration of some strata or segment of the society.

The migration of the thirties was attended by widespread distress, due to lack of settlement opportunities and of employment. The results have been reflected in the relief burdens on the Federal, State, and local governments. No complete figures are available as to expenditures by other than the Federal Government, but these tell a striking story.

During the period from 1933 to July 1, 1940, the Work Projects Administration and its predecessors expended $2,500,000,000 in the 17 States of the arid and semiarid region. Excluding Texas, where less than one-fourth of the population is in the drought area, the outlay was $250,000,000 more than the 1930 population would seem to have justified on a per capita basis.

In South Dakota, where the entire State was affected by the drought, for instance, the excess relief expenditures in the 7-year period were more than $25,000,000. California, where the impact of migrations has been most severe, showed an excess outlay on a population basis of more than $80,000,000.

Expenditures from July 1, 1933, to June 30, 1940, by the Civil Works Administration, Federal Emergency Relief and Work Projects Administration in the 17 arid and semiarid States, as reported by the Work Projects Administration, the National Emergency Council, and Office of Government Reports, were as follows:

Mountain and Pacific States:	
Arizona	$60,606,135
California	670,516,987
Colorado	148,149,845
Idaho	57,399,435
Montana	113,387,314
Nevada	14,864,009
New Mexico	65,778,865
Oregon	91,822,765
Utah	66,314,165
Washington	190,294,690
Wyoming	27,978,731
Total, Mountain and Pacific States	1,507,112,941

Great Plains States:	
Kansas	161,578,802
Nebraska	120,199,874
North Dakota	92,502,932
Oklahoma	214,159,025
South Dakota	109,471,142
Texas[1]	
Total, Great Plains	697,911,775
Grand total (16 States)[2]	2,205,024,716

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[1] Texas relief expenditures for the 7 years totaled $347,619,974, but as less than 25 percent of its population is in the drought area, the Federal outlay is not included in the tabulated total. If it were included, the expenditures for the 17 States would aggregate $2,552,644,690.

[2] Federal relief expenditures for the country as a whole, by the agencies named, totaled $12,843,383,774 in the 7 years.

Reports from typical reclamation project areas in 1937 showed that very few water users were on relief and that most of those who did require public assistance were newcomers. In other words, the irrigated areas of the West, generally speaking, supported their normal population while Federal relief expenditures were largely due in these rural areas to the influx of migrant families.

A survey by the Works Progress Administration, in cooperation with the Department of Agriculture, revealed that from 1933 to 1936 the heaviest expenditures in Federal aid of all kinds were in the counties which appeared to be most seriously affected by drought. In 137 counties where the population loss was heaviest, the per capita expenditures for the period averaged $175; in 179 counties, where conditions were less serious, the expenditures averaged $58 per capita.

It is evident that the distress which has resulted from the migrations has necessitated relief expenditures which are at the very least $250,000,000 above what might be called normal requirements. The relief expenditures directly traceable to this cause probably are much higher. It is evident also that a detailed analysis of conditions in the irrigated areas would show that relief expenditures among bona fide farmers there were extremely small.

It is not suggested that if all of the land in the area west of the one-hundredth meridian for which there is water available were under irrigation, the migrations and attendant drain on the Federal Treasury for relief could have been avoided. But in the absence of an adequately implemented water-conservation program in the Great Plains and sufficient irrigated land to the westward, relief expenditures were imperative. That course admittedly afforded no permanent solution for the problems here faced.

In this connection it may be pointed out that under the Federal reclamation program in 38 years there has been expended about $250,000,000 on projects completed and in operation, as distinguished from those under construction. The amount approximates the excess relief expenditures in the last 7 years directly traceable to drought and migrations. When all projects under construction are completed, the cost in reimbursable funds of these permanent improvements will be but a little more than half of the Federal relief costs in the area in 7 years.

With the expenditure of about $250,000,000 on a reimbursable basis, the Bureau of Reclamation, as noted earlier, has actually created homes for about 1,000,000 people on farms and in project towns. In addition to making these successful homes, these projects have been and will continue to be important sources of new wealth.

These projects also make valuable contributions through assistance in the stabilization of surrounding areas. For example, crops valued at $2,657,987,768 have been produced since their beginnings on these projects. On an average, it has been estimated each irrigated acre supports from 3 to 4 acres of range land. Thus the 4,000,000 acres for which the Federal irrigation works are prepared to provide with a full or supplemental water supply give value to from 12,000,000 to 16,000,000 additional acres.

As a further indication of an important service, I cite the stabilization of local and State governments through creation of taxable wealth. Irrigated land has an assessed valuation in most of the Western States of 10 to 15 times that of adjoining dry land. In eastern Wyoming Federal project land is assessed at an average of more than $30 while unirrigated farm land surrounding it has an assessed valuation of $2.35 an acre. In South Dakota, the valuation of irrigated land for purpose of taxation is $30 an acre and the best dry farm land in the vicinity of a Federal project is assessed at $4.50 an acre. The average is much less. In irrigated areas to the westward assessed values, where specialty crops are produced, run as high as $200 or $300 per acre.

The per acre value of crops produced on Federal reclamation projects from 1931 to 1939 averaged $36.33 compared with a national average of all field and fruit crops in the United States of $14.41. The following table illustrating this point will give the committee a better idea of the reason why these irrigated oases are stable communities:

Comparison of average per acre value of all crops in United States with reclamation project production, 1931–39

Year	All field crops [1]	All crops [2] (including fruit)	Reclamation projects [3]
1931	10.30	11.02	27.43
1932	7.10	7.59	20.69
1933	11.20	11.97	31.45
1934	14.70	15.72	39.90
1935	14.80	15.84	39.65
1936	18.30	19.58	48.40
1937	16.50	17.65	42.85
1938	13.30	14.23	38.47
1939	15.00	16.05	38.13
Average 9 years	13.47	14.41	36.33

[1] Estimate, Crop Marketing Division, Department of Agriculture.
[2] Includes 7 percent for value of fruit produced, based on 1929 reports of Bureau of Census.
[3] Bureau of Reclamation reports.

Census (1930) reports for 1929:[1]	*Per acre*
All crops	$22.32
Irrigated crops	61.50

[1] Irrigation of Agricultural Lands, 1930, Bureau of the Census.

The average per acre value of crops on reclamation projects in 1929 was $61.66.

Federal reclamation is not an emergency program, nor can it be used in an emergency through rapid expansion immediately to meet critical developing needs. Construction of a project requires painstaking investigations, for to build a project for which there was insufficient water or on which the lands were not of properly high quality could result only in failure. To build dams and big canals after the project has been approved and authorized also takes time. The Bureau of Reclamation builds for permanence since it feels that its projects will serve indefinitely into the future. For these reasons, the Bureau has had few new farmsteads to offer to the public during these years just past when the need was critical. The expansion of our construction program was coincidental with the drought and the start of these migrations. Since 1930, however, the Bureau has completed facilities to provide a full water supply to 381,000 acres of land, and storage facilities have been completed to provide supplemental water to an additional 304,000 acres already irrigated, but inadequately supplied with water. Thus in this decade more than 15,000 farm families have been settled or made secure.

In advancing the Federal program, which seeks to contribute to a solution of the migrant problem, the Bureau of Reclamation is now engaged in the construction of three types of projects:

First. Those which within the next 10 to 20 years, under present plans, will bring 2,500,000 acres of newly irrigated land into cultivation for the settlement of 40,000 to 50,000 families and which will provide support for an additional 75,000 to 100,000 families in nearby cities and towns. These projects are located in Washington, Oregon, California, Arizona, Utah, Idaho, Colorado, Montana, Oklahoma, and New Mexico.

Second. Projects which will assure supplemental water for 3,900,000 acres of presently developed irrigated areas threatened with desolation by shortages. These undertakings will serve the double purpose of maintaining established communities, agricultural and urban, and, through shifts in agricultural practices, will provide opportunities for settlement and employment of a larger population. There are now about 85,000 farm families on the land covered by these projects and about 250,000 additional families in the urban areas dependent on them.

Third. Water conservation and utility projects which will pave the way in the Great Plains and other arid and semiarid areas for land-use readjustments that will anchor families where they are now located and reduce the necessity for further migrations. Undertakings of this type under construction or for which funds have been provided will, it is estimated, assure rehabilitation of 2,250 farm families who otherwise in all probability would be compelled to join the army of migrants seeking a means of livelihood elsewhere. Although urged for several years as a means of combating conditions incident to the prolonged droughts, the fiscal year 1940 saw the first appropriations available for small projects of this type. Those under way are in North and South Dakota, Montana, and Nebraska.

A fourth phase of the Bureau's program is concerned with surveys and investigations of water resources and land available for irrigation. There are now approximately 175 locations in the 17 arid and semiarid States where surveys are going forward or are proposed. Included are about 50 projects in the Great Plains extending from the Canadian border to the Rio Grande.

The most recent estimates show there is water available to irrigate more than 22,000,000 additional acres of productive land in the 17 States of the West. This figure may be more meaningful when compared with the present total of irrigated lands in those States west of the one hundredth meridian. In irrigation projects of all types there are now about 20,000,000 acres.

Of the 2,500,000 acres included in the new-land projects, 580,634 are in public land in the States of California, Arizona, Idaho, Oregon, Washington, and Wyoming.

From the first, the Congress has looked upon the Federal Reclamation program as conservation activity in which settlement of people was a primary concern. At the outset the policy established in the days of the passage of the homestead laws that ownership should be by family sized units was applied to reclaimed lands. From time to time other provisions were made, such as the authorization for establishment of qualification requirements for settlers; provisions to prevent speculation in project lands and thereby to protect the interest of the legitimate settler; and a special act permitting the acceptance of credit extended to needy prospective settlers by the Farm Security Administration as fulfillment of capital requirements made on applicants for entry to the new farms. Among the most significant of these pronouncements, however, is that which was included this year in the Department of the Interior appropriation bill for 1941 (Public, 640, 76th Cong.), which is as follows:

"It is hereby declared to be the policy of the Congress, in opening to entry of newly irrigated public lands, preference shall be given to families who have no other means of earning a livelihood, or who have been compelled to abandon, through no fault of their own, other farms in the United States, and with respect to whom it appears after careful study, in the case of such family, that there is a probability that such family will be able to earn a livelihood on such irrigated lands."

There can be no doubt that it is intended that the Reclamation program shall assist where possible in relocation of the migrant people who are qualified to accept the responsibilities which go with the opportunity to develop new farms by irrigation.

With respect to the projects of the water conservation and utility type especially designed for the Great Plains and similar areas, it is found from estimates of the Farm Security Administration, which has the responsibility for settlement of the projects of this type so far authorized for construction, that about 1,100 families can be rehabilitated on each 100,000 acres irrigated by this method. An existence, precarious at best, is provided for families settled only one-third as thickly on typical areas that have been selected for development under the program to date. In addition, it is estimated that 600 families also can be rehabilitated in adjacent dry-land areas by reason of farm unit and population readjustments in the dry-farmed areas thus made possible. The following table better illustrates this point:

Schedule of farm family adjustments[1]*—Water conservation and utilization projects*[2]

[Based on estimates of Farm Security Administration]

State	Project	Areas	Rehabilitation in place (project area)	Rehabilitation by resettlement (project area)	Rehabilitation outside (project area)	Total adjustment
Montana	Buffalo Rapids I	12,000	50	115	76	241
Do	Buffalo Rapids II	9,800	20	104	69	193
North Dakota	Buford Trenton	13,400	35	115	115	265
Nebraska	Mirage Flats	12,000	30	120	120	270
South Dakota	Rapids Valley	12,000	60	60	45	165
North Dakota	Bismarck Flats	4,876	20	40	30	90
Wyoming	Eden Valley	20,000	80	70	70	220
Total		84,076	295	624	525	1,444

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[1] Estimate of Farm Security Administration, Department of Agriculture, is made on the assumption that all irrigable land except adequate sized units retained by operators will be available for Government purchase and subdivision.

[2] 6 projects in Montana, North and South Dakota, and Nebraska under construction or authorized.

Reimbursable appropriations made for these water conservation and utility projects represent approximately 40 percent of the outlay necessary to construct them and to make the land ready for cultivation. The remainder of the funds are allocated by the President for labor and materials from the Work Projects Administration or other governmental agencies and are not necessarily reimbursable. The authority for projects of this type is contained in the Department of the Interior Appropriation Act of 1940 (53 Stat. 685) and the Wheeler-Case Act of 1939 (53 Stat. 1418). Amendments to the latter act suggested to the Congress are designed to clarify its provisions and expedite construction.

Under this legislation a total of $8,500,000 of reimbursable appropriations has been made. For construction and land preparation of 10 to 12 projects from $10,000,000 to $12,000,000 additional in labor and materials from the Work Projects Administration or the Civilian Conservation Corps will be required. Much of the latter moneys will be in lieu of relief expenditures on less permanent construction.

A tentative 5-year program submitted by Secretary of the Interior Harold L. Ickes to Senator Carl Hayden, of Arizona, under date of January 18, 1940, outlined 75 small projects in the Great Plains and arid States to the westward designed to anchor farm families in their present locations. Over-all construction costs were estimated at around $60,000,000 with about half to be made available on a reimbursable basis. Water would be supplied for areas on which from 8,000 to 10,000 families would be resettled.

What the reclamation programs can accomplish in the next 10 years will be governed by the amount of money made available for this work. However, with appropriations of reimbursable funds continued at the current rate, and with a limited diversion of relief funds for water conservation and utility projects, results that may be expected with confidence at the end of 10 years can be summarized as follows:

1. Forty thousand to fifty thousand farm families already in the West will be settled on irrigated land where they will be self-sustaining.
2. Seventy-five thousand to one hundred thousand additional families will be supported in cities, towns, and villages which will rise or expand in the wake of irrigation developments.
3. Eighty-five thousand farm families in areas now facing shortages of water will be made secure in their present locations, while cities and towns with three times the rural population will be stabilized as well.
4. Twenty thousand to twenty-five thousand families remaining in the Great Plains and similar areas will be rehabilitated.

STATEMENT OF E. B. DEBLER, HYDRAULIC ENGINEER, BUREAU OF RECLAMATION

Preliminary reports of the 1940 Census show that water conservation is today a greater factor than ever in assuring economic security for the increasing population of areas in the arid and semiarid West where irrigation dominates agricultural production. The fact that so many counties thus classified show substantial gains in population emphasizes the importance of an authoritative inventory of present and potential irrigation development and the influence that it can and will exert as a stabilizing factor.

I shall not duplicate material in the presentation by Commissioner Page, summarizing the current program of the Bureau of Reclamation and other factual material, but will center my discussion on what irrigation expansion can accomplish in each of its major regions if water resources are utilized in the public interest.

With respect to irrigation characteristics, the western United States may be divided into four zones.

SUBHUMID REGION

The most easterly zone occupies a north-south belt of some 200,000,000 acres, with its western border along the ninty-eighth meridian. Designated the subhumid area, it is characterized by long periods of years when precipitation is generally adequate in amount and distribution for satisfactory crop production. Grazing is limited to areas unsuited to cultivation. Irrigation receives attention only in periods of protracted drought coming at long intervals and is quickly dropped when rains resume. While water resources are plentiful, even in drought periods, for extensive development, irrigation projects are not justified as they would be deserted between drought periods and their rehabilitation in times of need would be too slow for effectiveness and too costly for justification. In this area there are innumerable opportunities for small reservoir and pumping developments, in the main adequate for stock watering and garden irrigation, but in times of need capable of saving small acreages of high-valued crops. Migration from this region is not believed extensive and the major benefit of such developments is the improvement of morale.

Of some 2,000,000 farms involved, probably not more than a half would benefit sufficiently by irrigation to justify its adoption. Not more than one-fourth would care to make the effort even with material assistance. With such assistance limited to cement, steel, or pumping equipment and the landowner performing all labor, the cost is estimated at an average of $1,000 per farm, or a total of $500,000,000. Such a program would require years of education. The farm population directly benefited would total about 3,000,000; indirectly the benefits would touch fully 10,000,000 persons on the farms and their nearby business centers. Stabilization, rather than an increase in population, is anticipated from irrigation activities in this area. The Bureau of Reclamation is not active in this area except in a few minor instances.

GREAT PLAINS REGION

Bordered on the east by the subhumid area and on the west by the arid lands bordering the intermountain area, the Great Plains region, 200 to 300 miles in width, reaches from the Canadian border through the Texas Panhandle. Average rainfall varies from 15 inches to 25 inches per year but often falls off a fourth or more for years on end. The easterly border has normally a mixed agriculture, turning more strongly to wheat in the drier years. Centrally of the area, wheat is king wherever lands are suitable for bonanza farming; a year of drought brings economic coma; protracted drought, wholesale migration. The westerly portion is frankly regarded as a plain agricultural gamble, sparsely settled and booming only with providential rainfall coming all too seldom. Average farm holdings increase from about 160 acres at the eastern border to fully 500 acres at the west.

Irrigation in this region, while important in some localities, is negligible for the area as a whole. The objective of irrigation here is to provide farming opportunities for potential migrants and their offsping, and to assist in stabilizing adjacent towns, dry-farmed areas, and range lands. Much of the dry-farmed area should be depopulated and restored to range.

Although several streams crossing the Great Plains have their origin in mountain snows, notably the Missouri, Platte, and Arkansas Rivers, only the Missouri River and Yellowstone River carry large flows of mountain waters into, and through, the area. The others, like the local streams, are dependent on erratic rains, except where sandy soils maintain steady base flows, already largely utilized.

Utilization of Missouri and Yellowstone Rivers waters involves pumping with moderate acre costs for construction but formidable annual costs for power. While numerous small projects exist, there are also large projects costing up to $100,000,000 without opportunity for favorable partial developments.

All other streams require costly storage regulation. Droughts fostering irrigation also impair stream flows while lack of cheap reservoir sites preclude holdover from years of better flow. In such developments, allowance is necessary for stream depletion being effected through thousands of small reservoirs yet to be constructed for livestock watering, recreation, and minor irrigation.

The average irrigated area per farm in this area should be around 80 acres, with a farm population of four persons per farm and a town population of eight persons per farm. Stabilization should enable adjacent lands to absorb a population equal to those at present on lands to be irrigated.

A small part of the available water in this area would be used to supplement areas already irrigated. Opportunities for power development are very limited in this region. Flood control is not often warranted.

Although not truly a part of the Great Plains region, the lower Rio Grande Valley has been included in the statistics for the Great Plains region.

INTERMOUNTAIN REGION

This region includes the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains and reaches westerly to within a few hundred miles of the Pacific coast. It is essentially an area of range and irrigation as dry farming is almost negligible. Livestock production heavily influences farming operations. Irrigation development will be limited by water supplies and will never exceed 5 percent of the land area. Lands to be irrigated are arid and unpeopled. Thousands of small reservoirs built for range improvement have depleted irrigation supplies. Other thousands are proposed. Care should be exercised in such construction to avoid unnecessary waste, by useless evaporation, of waters needed for irrigation.

About one-half the remaining unused water, and in places all, will be needed as a supplemental supply for irrigation systems built in times of better run-off. More money will need be expended for reservoirs than for other works. Opportunities for incidental power development abound and power sales will assist in effecting repayment of costs besides providing needed power for proper development, including that of the mineral resources. Flood control is generally desirable and can be advantageously combined with irrigation regulation.

Parts of the irrigated area are overpopulated, particularly in Utah, and other areas are tending in that direction. Supplemental water to increase productive power of the land, and to enable crop changes, will stem a migration that is already alarming in special areas. Settlement opportunities for migrants will be afforded to the extent that irrigation development outstrips the needs for local population increases. The farm population in this area, including farm hands, will average five people per farm, and town population fully two persons to each one on the farm. Irrigated farms will average about 60 acres to the family, although many large holdings now exist.

WEST COAST REGION

Comprising Washington, western Oregon, California, and southwest Arizona, this region represents the area directly tributary to tidewater cities. With few exceptions, water supplies exceed land areas that may be developed. A rapidly growing population, due more to immigration than local increase, has spurred irrigation development. No further generalizations are applicable.

The Columbia Basin project of central Washington, to cost about $400,000,000 for irrigation and power development, will irrigate 1,200,000 acres of lands of negligible present population. With crops ranging from alfalfa to small fruits, the average farm area is estimated at 50 acres, the farm population at five persons per farm, and the town population at two persons to one on the farm. The Roza division of the Yakima project, also in central Washington, will bring into production 72,000 acres of similar lands. To the east of the Columbia Basin project another 400,000 acres may ultimately be developed, though at present satisfied with dry farming, and mainly wheat.

The Puget Sound-Willamette Valley, already in cultivation except for a moderate increase through further clearing, is gradually adopting irrigation to overcome lack of summer precipitation and secure increased yields and improved quality. Irrigation sentiment is weak and its development will come slowly. Irrigated areas in this valley are expected to reach 500,000 acres with an average of 40 acres and six persons per irrigated farm. A corresponding town population of three persons off the farm to each one on the farm is anticipated.

The Central Valley of California contains nearly 2,000,000 acres requiring supplemental water and about 7,000,000 acres still to be irrigated at a construction cost of about $1,000,000,000 for works to provide flood control, irrigation, and incidental power development. The entire cost of this development, aside from proper allocations to flood control and navigation, will be repaid by revenues from the sale of water and of power. The present authorized project, with a cost of about $228,000,000, will provide needed supplemental water and enable the irrigation of about 175,000 acres of new lands, mostly in the San Joaquin Valley. The provision of supplemental water supplies will provide settlement possibilities equivalent to a new area of 200,000 acres.

The 7,000,000 acres of new lands that eventually may be irrigated are about equally divided between uncultivated lands largely in the San Joaquin Valley and thinly peopled grain lands, largely in Sacramento Valley. With irrigation, farms are expected to average 40 acres with five people each, in San Joaquin Valley, and 80 acres with six people each in Sacramento Valley. Town population in this valley is estimated at four persons per farm person.

Southern California, except in the Imperial and Coachella Valleys under the All-American Canal, offers little opportunity for added irrigation as its water supplies are so largely and intensively utilized. The Metropolitan Aqueduct importation of 1,050,000 acre-feet annually from the Colorado River will do little more than overcome deficiencies in irrigation supplies for existing areas and meet growing municipal and industrial requirements in the Los Angeles region. Some farmed areas will be more intensively farmed and subdivided but such gains will be offset by equal or greater losses in areas converted to nonagricultural uses.

The All-American Canal project of Southern California and the Gila project in Arizona will ultimately place about 800,000 acres of desert, largely public land, under irrigation at a cost of about $100,000,000. More than half the ultimate area will receive service from works now under construction. The average farm area for these lands is estimated at 50 acres with four persons per farm in addition to the present farm population, and a town population of three times as many. Much of the area is a sandy desert soil, adapted only to specialized crops after expensive preparation.

REPAYMENT OF CONSTRUCTION COSTS

Construction by the Bureau of Reclamation falls into four categories. The Boulder Canyon project, with its All-American and Coachella Canals serving Imperial and Coachella Valleys, the Central Valley project of California, and the Columbia basin project with its Grand Coulee Dam, comprise a group of multiple-purpose projects especially authorized for construction with general funds. Boulder Dam costs will be repaid almost wholly by power revenues, as will substantial investments in the Central Valley project and Grand Coulee Dam. Cost of the All-American and Coachella Valley Canals will be repaid under the reclamation law; on the others, costs allocated to irrigation will be so repaid.

Most projects now under construction were authorized under provisions of the reclamation law and depend on appropriations from the reclamation fund. Prior to 1939 practically all costs were charged to irrigation, to be repaid in most cases in 40 years without interest, and power revenues assisted in repayment. The Reclamation Project Act of 1939 provides for allocation of construction cost to irrigation, power, flood control, and other purposes, with irrigators responsible only for the repayment of costs allocated to irrigation. All major projects involve multiple uses.

A 1939 appropriation of $5,000,000 provides for construction and settlement of projects in the Great Plains region. The projects included in this program at this time include the Buffalo Rapids units 1 and 2 in Montana, Rapid Valley project in South Dakota, the Buford-Trenton and Bismarck projects in North Dakota, the Mirage Flats project in Nebraska, and the Eden project in Wyoming. The Saco Divide unit of the Milk River project in Montana may be added. Construction is carried out with Work Projects Administration labor and repayment requirements are limited to expenditures from the $5,000,000 appropriation, to be repaid in 40 years without interest.

The Wheeler-Case law of August 11, 1939, authorized construction of projects with the aid of Work Projects Administration, Civilian Conservation Corps, and other Federal agencies. Outside assistance may also be accepted. Repayment is required in 40 years, without interest, of funds expended from appropriations under this act, together with such other part of any expenditures as the President may direct, not exceeding costs allocated to irrigation. An appropriation of $3,500,000 was made for the fiscal year 1941. Projects are to be limited to a maximum use of $1,000,000 of Wheeler-Case funds, per project.

In the Great Plains region project-construction costs are estimated to average $125 per acre, with $75 estimated as the limit of repayment ability. Here annual costs for operation are made unusually high by power costs for the many projects requiring pumping. Flood control allocations are seldom justified and construction must therefore largely come under the Great Plains and Wheeler-Case authorizations. Some, however, are too large to come under the Wheeler-Case law and at present can only be built by special authorization under the 1939 reclamation law.

In the Intermountain region many of the smaller projects can only be constructed under the Wheeler-Case law as irrigation interests could not repay all costs properly chargeable to irrigation, and power possibilities are unattractive. The larger projects usually justify flood control or power allocations adequate to take up construction costs not properly allocable to irrigation. Project developments, including power, are estimated to average $160 per acre, of which a large part will be repaid by irrigation and power.

The situation on the west coast is similar to that in the Intermountain region, except that little development will come under the provisions of the Wheeler-Case law, and average construction costs of $150 will be fully repaid out of income from sales of water and power.

In the 38 years of its construction activities the Bureau of Reclamation has transformed desert areas into more than 50,000 farm homes in 15 States.

Of these irrigated farms, which represent about one-fifth of the total thus supplied with water in the United States, there are around 10,000 in the Great Plains region, 34,000 in the Intermountain area; and 8,000 in the West Coast States.

Throughout its history the Bureau of Reclamation has preceded construction of each project by an investigation of its water and land resources. Available funds have never been adequate to the task of providing inventory of western resources, but the purpose has been held in mind so that the work should lead to a comprehensive view of the possibilities and the potentialities of all areas of the West. It has long been recognized that the social and economic development of the West rests largely on economic utilization of its limited water supplies.

I would like, therefore, to review for the benefit of the committee some of the estimates we are now able to make with respect to future irrigation developments in the arid and semiarid region. There are at this time approximately 20,000,000 acres under irrigation in the 17 Western States. Our investigations have brought a conviction that unused waters can be conserved to give an assured supply to the present lands and to reclaim an additional area slightly larger than the present area. Supplemental water for areas already developed will bring a larger measure of security and increased productivity to 11,000,000 acres or 123,000 farms which are now or will be in the future faced with retrogression because of existing or developing water shortages.

I am referring, of course, about what now seems to us the ultimate development. This picture, in other words, is what might be seen at some time far in the future when the projects have all been built and our waters utilized so far as practicable.

There is water and suitable land to create approximately 383,000 new farms. On these new farms to be irrigated, and in the towns which will grow up among them, nearly 6,000,000 people will make their homes. These future developments will create property values of $16,000,000,000. In addition, the supplemental water projects yet to be constructed can provide opportunities for 679,000 persons on 45,000 additional farms and the accompanying developments.

A table has been prepared to give a clearer picture of the possibilities presented in this arid and semiarid region by the unused water and land resources.

Present and potential irrigation development in western United States

	Great Plains region	Intermountain region	West coast region	Total
Present:				
Areas now irrigated	2, 100, 000	13, 400, 000	5, 800, 000	21, 300, 000
Farm homes created	20, 000	135, 000	120, 000	275, 000
Potential:				
Area to receive supplemental water (acres)	700, 000	8, 000, 000	3, 000, 000	11, 700, 000
Farm homes to be protected	7, 000	66, 000	50, 000	123, 000
New area to be irrigated (acres)	4, 500, 000	6, 400, 000	11, 100, 000	22, 000, 000
OPPORTUNITIES FOR SETTLEMENT				
Supplemental water projects:				
Farm homes to be created	2, 000	33, 000	10, 000	45, 000
Added population:				
On farms	8, 000	165, 000	40, 000	213, 000
In towns	16, 000	330, 000	120, 000	466, 000
New land projects:				
Farm homes created	56, 000	107, 000	220, 000	383, 000
Added population:				
On farms	224, 000	535, 000	880, 000	1, 639, 000
In towns	448, 000	1, 070, 000	2, 540, 000	4, 058, 000
Total new farm homes	58, 000	140, 000	230, 000	428, 000
Total additional population	696, 000	2, 100, 000	3, 580, 000	6, 376, 000
Property values to be created	$1, 400, 000, 000	$4, 000, 000, 000	$10, 600, 000, 000	$16, 000, 000, 000
Total ultimate irrigated area (acres)	6, 600, 000	19, 800, 000	16, 900, 000	43, 300, 000
Total ultimate farm homes	78, 000	275, 000	350, 000	703, 000

The accompanying map locates the areas now irrigated, gives the locations of Federal projects under construction, and indicates the acreage, by regions, that is susceptible of irrigation. (See map facing p. 1582.)

The enactment of the Wheeler-Case law has materially broadened the field of activity for the Bureau in that it paves the way for the construction of numerous small meritorious projects which cannot be expected to repay entirely their cost of construction, as required by the older reclamation law. The lack of repayment ability on these projects is offset through the use of Work Projects Administration and Civilian Conservation Corps labor, which might otherwise be employed on less permanent work.

At the present rate of development, supplemental water would be annually extended to an average of 2,500 farm units, and the resulting reduction in size of farms would release 1,000 farm units for new settlers. New irrigation projects would bring in 7,000 new farm units per year. The farm and town population supported by these developments would average 110,000 persons per year and their wealth would increase at the rate of $300,000,000 per year.

Construction of irrigation projects is well adapted to providing constructive work in areas where it is needed, and where the alternative is largely one of direct relief. The irrigated regions are practically devoid of industrial establishments that will benefit by war-defense activities. In some localities increased mining will provide some employment but not in numbers. The program of construction of schools, municipal improvements, and highway construction fostered by various forms of Federal financial assistance in the past 7 years, has very largely filled all justifiable needs of this nature.

Irrigation construction work, particularly with the force account basis under the Wheeler-Case law, permits the utilization, to a large degree, of local labor with little or no previous construction experience. An annual expenditure of $75,000,000 per year of reimbursable funds, with allowance for the use of Works Progress Administration labor, will provide 100,000,000 man-hours of labor per year for local residents—30 hours a week for 65,000 workers. The further expenditure of about $25,000,000 annually for local supplies, services, and the employment of skilled labor will further assist in quickening business life in the communities with benefit to distressed farmers. Such monetary assistance will effectively anchor large numbers of prospective migrants until completion of irrigation works enables permanently increased agricultural activities.

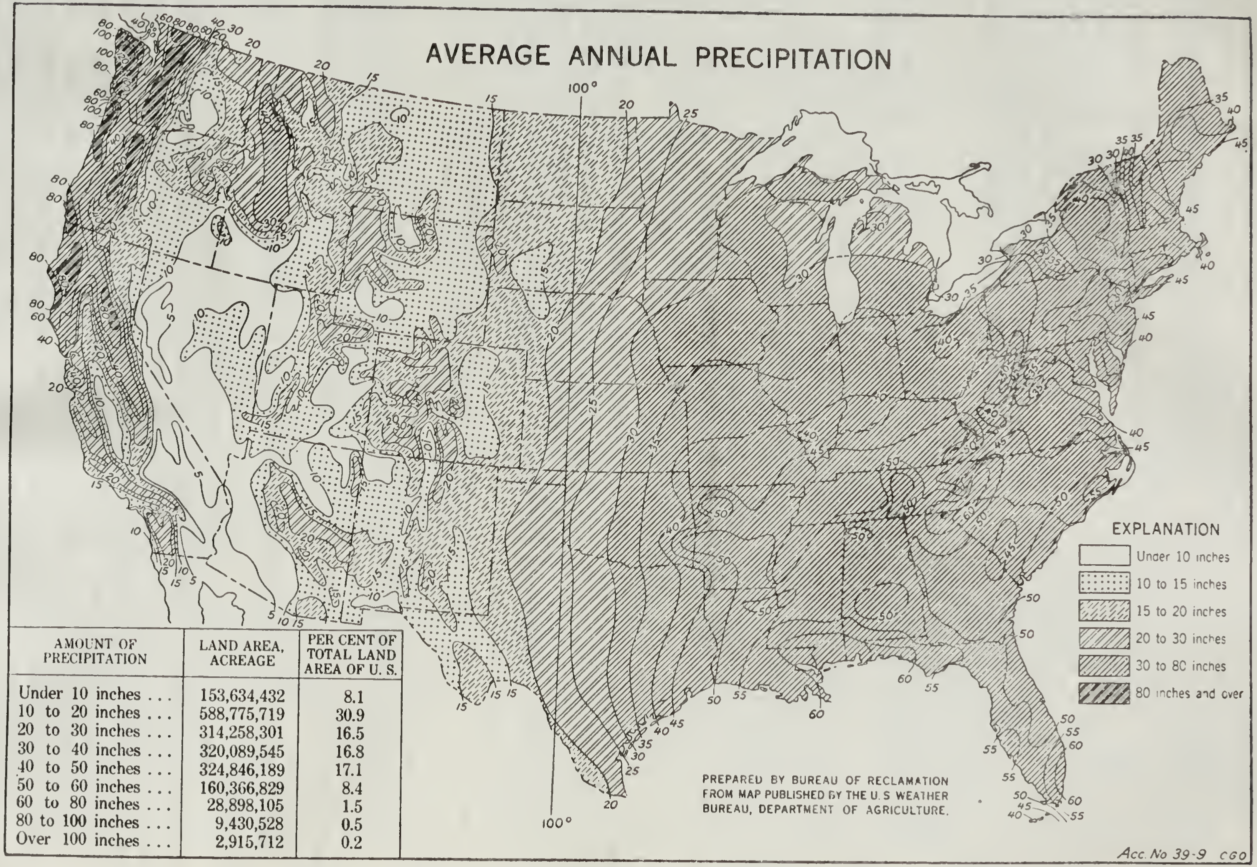
STATEMENT OF JOHN C. PAGE—Resumed

Mr. CURTIS. Mr. Page, this committee has begun to learn something about the need and work of the Bureau of Reclamation at first hand from refugees from drought States we have encountered in other regional hearings. We also heard yesterday something about the general problem of climatic conditions peculiar to this region. I wish you would address yourself briefly to the condition in the West which makes irrigation necessary, and review the work which has been done by the Bureau of Reclamation.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION OF BUREAU OF RECLAMATION

Mr. PAGE. The Bureau of Reclamation was organized by the act of June 17, 1902, for the primary purpose of replacing, with irrigation developments, the losses in natural resources which occurred in Western States through the sale of public land, through the use of the oil supplies and the other minerals. The Reclamation Bureau was originally financed by aggregating the revenues from those sources—from the natural resources of the 17 Western States—into a fund for the construction of irrigation projects, and for 38 years we have been operating in that field. Our activities, by law, are confined to public-land States plus Texas. Texas had a special act which included it under the reclamation program.

AVERAGE ANNUAL PRECIPITATION


100°
EXPLANATION
Under 10 inches
10 to 15 inches
15 to 20 inches
20 to 30 inches
30 to 80 inches
80 inches and over
Acc. No 39-9 CGO

PREPARED BY BUREAU OF RECLAMATION FROM MAP PUBLISHED BY THE U.S WEATHER BUREAU, DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

AMOUNT OF PRECIPITATION	LAND AREA, ACREAGE	PER CENT OF TOTAL LAND AREA OF U. S.
Under 10 inches . . .	153,634,432	8.1
10 to 20 inches . . .	588,775,719	30.9
20 to 30 inches . . .	314,258,301	16.5
30 to 40 inches . . .	320,089,545	16.8
40 to 50 inches . . .	324,846,189	17.1
50 to 60 inches . . .	160,366,829	8.4
60 to 80 inches . . .	28,898,105	1.5
80 to 100 inches . . .	9,430,528	0.5
Over 100 inches . . .	2,915,712	0.2

Mr. CURTIS. What States are included in the public-land States?

Mr. PAGE. North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Oklahoma, New Mexico, Colorado, Wyoming, Montana, Utah, Nevada, Arizona, Idaho, California, Oregon, and Washington. Nearly all the States west of the Mississippi River. Texas was added sometime later, because it wasn't a public-land State.

Mr. CURTIS. Now, will you, just for the record, briefly explain what the term "public-land State" means?

Mr. PAGE. Public-land State was the designation of those States in which the purchase carried the title of the land in that area to the United States. It was then made available to settlers under the Homestead Act and the Settlement Act. And the areas which have been made for forest reserves, for national parks, and things of that kind, also are public lands. The returns from the disposal of those public lands went direct to Federal Treasury.

Mr. CURTIS. Thank you; you may proceed.

Mr. PARSONS. Mr. Page, right there, when these different States were admitted into the United States, it was with reservations, and the Federal Government reserved a right to the public land, is that right?

Mr. PAGE. I think that is right, yes; that is, until the lands pass to private ownership, the title is in the United States. The experience of the Bureau has indicated that in those 17 Western States there are farms with different irrigation demands. Roughly, we speak of the territory west of the hundredth meridian as irrigation territory, because in that section rainfall is generally insufficient to produce crops without artificial application of water, which is irrigation. The hundredth meridian is a straight line, and the land between the humid and the semiarid territory is not a straight line, but generally speaking, the hundredth meridian is about the eastern limit of what is commonly considered the irrigation territory. I might say that in connection with that hundredth meridian, there are lands on the west side which scarcely need irrigation, and lands on the east side which do need irrigation for successful cultivation. There is no definite line on which you can say, "This is," or "That is not."

Incidentally, this map which I have on the wall here represents the rainfall chart, and shows the conditions which prevail, the hundredth meridian being in the territory in which the rainfall is approximately 20 inches. (See map on p. 1577.)

Mr. CURTIS. Mr. Page, right there, you are going to leave that map, are you?

Mr. PAGE. Yes. The rainfall nomenclature that is on this map indicates very definitely the difference between the so-called humid and the semiarid and arid territory, which causes the need for irrigation. Now the line along the hundredth meridian, generally, has about 20 inches of rainfall, and if that were 20 inches of rainfall every year, crops could be raised. But it takes very little variation from that 20 inches to make a radical difference in the productive capacity of that land, an inch in 20 being quite different from an inch in 40 inches of rainfall. In other words, a very slight variation from the average makes a radical difference in the percentage of rainfall which is available. And it is for that reason that hundredth meridian is more or less considered the eastern edge of the irrigation territory.

IRRIGATION PROJECTS UNDER CONSTRUCTION

The Bureau has been operating 38 years, and there are 40 operating projects which are now in existence. Since 1933 a considerably augmented program has been made possible, and there are some 25 projects now under construction. These will practically double the irrigated area when they are completed. They include such big projects as the Columbia Basin and the project in California known as the Central Valley, and a number of smaller undertakings. Until 1933 the program was limited to the revolving fund, which prevented appropriations and prevented construction at the rate which seemed justified. Since that time, the larger appropriations have been carried from the general fund of the Treasury, and smaller ones have been carried through the revolving fund. I might say here that the law requires that any construction which is made by the Bureau, or contemplated by the Bureau, requires contracts by which the beneficiaries will agree to repay the total cost of the construction to the United States, within a maximum of 40 years, without interest. That is the fundamental requirement of the Reclamation Act.

In 1939 the act was broadened somewhat by permitting an allocation of cost to flood control and power, which would be carried by the Federal Treasury, if it was found, in the joint opinion of the Army engineers and the Bureau, that flood control and power value existed in the project. So that part of the cost of the project which properly can be allocated to flood control or power is not carried by the irrigators. That is the basis on which we have been operating. An irrigation project is not a simple thing, and we do not consider that these projects can be instituted and pushed as an emergency measure. It is a continuous, stabilized undertaking, which has been operating, as I say, for 38 years, and it takes a long time to initiate and plan and construct a project of great magnitude.

SCOTTSBLUFF PROJECT

Mr. CURTIS. Mr. Page, the Scottsbluff territory, up on the North Platte, is one of the oldest of the projects which have been developed?

Mr. PAGE. Yes; that was started in 1905.

Mr. CURTIS. It has a very definite relation to the population trend in the State of Nebraska, does it not?

Mr. PAGE. Well, I think that can be cited as a typical case, where the trends through the five States are reversed. In other words, generally speaking, the population trend, as shown by the census, in the States of Kansas, Nebraska, North and South Dakota, and Oklahoma, have shown a reduction, and yet Scottsbluff County, in 1905, at the time the North Platte project was started, had 2,552 residents. In 1910 that population had increased to 8,355; by 1920, to 20,710; in 1930 it was 26,644; by 1940, to 38,875, a gain of about 18.3 percent in that one county, as compared to the State as a whole with a decrease of 4.7 percent.

Mr. CURTIS. That project is paid for now?

Mr. PAGE. No; it is in the process of paying. It has been paying the charges which have come due, but it is not wholly paid out as yet.

Mr. CURTIS. Being among the first of them, it was put in on a 20-year basis, was it not?

Mr. PAGE. Originally, on a 10-year basis. Congress passed the requirement that it all be paid back in 10 years; then they modified it to be paid back in 20 years, and then finally, in 40 years. A few projects like the North Platte have a 5 percent crop repayment plan authorized from 1924 to 1926. The adjustment of those contracts and the initiation of some of the phases of the contemplated projects changed the terms and it isn't yet entirely paid out. Nor are there any projects entirely paid out.

Mr. CURTIS. Are they making progress?

Mr. PAGE. Yes, sir.

STATUS OF FARMERS' PAYMENTS

Mr. CURTIS. Are very many of the farmers in default, from the various reclamation projects?

Mr. PAGE. No; the law has authorized, this last year and for the last 2 or 3 years, the Secretary to study the projects and make such revision of their contract schedules as he finds is necessary, due to drought or some other factor beyond their control, and I think in no year of the last two or three, even during this drought, has it been necessary to reduce the level of installments in any year more than 10 percent. There was a net deferment of approximately 10 percent in 1939 and 1938.

RAINFALL RECORD PAST 5 TO 7 YEARS

Mr. CURTIS. Now, getting back to the rainfall map, I assume that is a recent map of the last year or two?

Mr. PAGE. Yes; that was taken recently from the Weather Bureau records.

Mr. CURTIS. Now, going through the Dakotas and Nebraska and Kansas and down through Oklahoma and Texas, it is indicated that rainfall is from 20 to 30 inches over a strip through there. Now, I understand that for the last 5 to 7 years there was a large portion of this country on west where they have had considerably less than 20 inches.

Mr. PAGE. That is true. Of course, this map is made up on the basis of average rainfall as the Weather Bureau has seen it for many years.

Mr. CURTIS. Five or ten years ago they had more than 20 to 30 inches in a lot of that region so if you look at a map in 1910 and 1940, there would be a difference?

Mr. PAGE. No two maps that affect that territory are alike. Perhaps an unfortunate thing was that at the time of which you speak, 1910, there was a surplus of rainfall, that is, in every rainfall period. This augmented the rush to put all that territory into wheat, and it combined, for quite awhile there, with the World War price of wheat, to produce an unfortunate situation on the prairie.

Mr. CURTIS. Has this area steadily been reducing its ground water for many years?

Mr. PAGE. Well, that is what the records indicate, where records are kept on the ground water. I think the geological survey will show the lowering of the ground water in practically the whole territory, even to the point where the artesian water in the Dakotas, where it was so plentiful for awhile, has almost disappeared.

Mr. CURTIS. Now, if normal rainfall should come back to this area, of 20 to 30 inches, how long would it take to restore the ground level, restore the moisture this territory had, for instance, say 30 years ago?

Mr. PAGE. I don't believe anybody can estimate that, Congressman. It would take many years, because the subsoil is dry, and the volume of water required is so great that the manner of getting the water into the subsoil would be the determining factor as to how long it would take. But as a general statement, I would say that it would take a long time.

Mr. CURTIS. There wouldn't be any uniform absorption, anyway, would there?

Mr. PAGE. No; it varies all the way from a little or none to a very heavy absorption.

Mr. CURTIS. So there isn't very much hope of a complete restoration of this area for many, many years to come?

Mr. PAGE. I can see no real hope for permanent stabilization of this area through that process. We will have, I think, succeeding cycles of abundant rainfall and raising the ground water, and succeeding cycles of drought. In 1887 Major Wesley Powell, who was then head of the Geological Survey, warned the territory that it wasn't a farm territory, because the rainfall would not be considered adequate to farm year in and year out, with an assurance of a water supply.

Mr. PARSONS. At that point, Mr. Page, I would like to comment on this proposition. Nebraska, as I recall, is not an old State, and some of this borderline territory, where there is almost enough rainfall but yet not quite enough, during the years when the soil had stored up an abundance of plant food over hundreds of years required less rainfall than it would now, is that true?

Mr. PAGE. I think so, and every drop of rainfall they got was effective under those conditions.

Mr. PARSONS. So perhaps there are cases where, in some of the borderline territory, if we had gone out there with irrigation 10 years ago, the situation now would be different? It might not have been advisable 20 or 30 years ago, as there was some doubt about there being a need? Is that right?

Mr. PAGE. I do not think that is true. The droughts have pointed a finger right at the territory which could well use irrigation if it could be made available.

CASE-WHEELER ACT PROVIDING REHABILIATION THROUGH RELIEF EXPENDITURES

Mr. CURTIS. Now, Mr. Page, you have told us something about the Reclamation Act. Will you just touch briefly on the so-called Case-Wheeler Act, so the committee will know what that is and how it operates, and describe any distinction from the general Reclamation Act.

Mr. PAGE. Well, the general Reclamation Act requires 100 percent repayment of every dollar invested in the construction; it must be repaid. The Case-Wheeler program was designed by the Northern Great Plains Committee of the National Resources Planning Board, as a project, or a program, on which the relief expenditures could be used to the best advantage for the permanent rehabilitation of the territory. In other words, the relief labor was to be used in the construction of these projects, and these costs might not be reimbursed, if the President saw fit to use the law; that is the set-up now.

Mr. CURTIS. Does that deal with smaller projects, and what limit is there on it?

Mr. PAGE. There is no limit in the present bill. On the other hand, the requirement, or the demand for relief participation, pretty well limits it to the smaller projects, where relief labor is available there locally. That automatically keeps it to a smaller type of project, which in our experience is the most desirable for that type of area.

Mr. CURTIS. And the practical way it works out is that the appropriation under the Case-Wheeler Act goes for those items in the building of a project that cannot be taken care of from the relief appropriation, such as drawing on W. P. A. labor and that sort of thing?

Mr. PAGE. Well, actually it works out that way. We have an appropriation of three and a half million dollars this year for the nonrelief cost of these projects, the expectation being that all the relief labor available will be used, and the machinery and rights-of-way and things of that kind will be paid for from the appropriated money, all of which must be repaid; that is, the appropriated money.

Mr. CURTIS. And 2 years ago we had $5,000,000?

Mr. PAGE. Yes, sir. That was outside of the Case-Wheeler Act. It was a separate item not really authorized by a general law.

Mr. CURTIS. What was the effective date of the Case-Wheeler Act, the first one, approximately?

Mr. PAGE. Well, it was the last Congress, I think.

Mr. DEBLER. August 11, 1939.

Mr. CURTIS. And many of these so-called smaller projects under the Case-Wheeler Act that have been started, or are being considered, are in the so-called Dust Bowl?

Mr. PAGE. All of them that have started are in the Great Plains area.

Mr. CURTIS. And as you say, it was more or less an outgrowth of the activity of the Great Plains Committee that focused national attention on the matter of irrigation?

Mr. PAGE. That is true. You remember, perhaps, the President sent a committee up through from Texas to North Dakota to inspect this area in 1936. I happened to be a member of that committee, and the creation of the Great Plains Committee followed that, and they devised this program of what we call subsidized irrigation to the extent of relief.

TESTIMONY OF E. B. DEBLER, HYDRAULIC ENGINEER, BUREAU OF RECLAMATION

Mr. CURTIS. Mr. Debler, will you discuss briefly what can be accomplished by the expansion of irrigation in each of the major regions where water resources can be utilized in the public interest?

ESTIMATE ON EXTENT AND POSSIBLE RESULTS OF FUTURE EXPANSION OF IRRIGATION

Mr. DEBLER. As a guide to these areas I would like to refer to that map on the wall. (See map on opposite page.) It shows the 17 Western States area, divided into 3 regions, the easterly one being the Great Plains region.

Mr. DEBLER. The Great Plains region is that lying in the westerly part of the Dakotas, Nebraska, Kansas, Oklahoma, and Texas, and the easterly part of Montana, Wyoming and Colorado. The Intermountain region is the broad expanse lying between the Great Plains region and the States usually called the Pacific, or west coast, States, and then we have, skirting the Pacific, the west coast region. The characteristics of those regions are different. In the Great Plains region the streams are very erratic; the water that is going to be available for use is largely of local origin, since the streams that head in the mountains are depleted before they reach the Great Plains.

The CHAIRMAN. There would be considerably more water for distribution if it wasn't for the fact that the streams usually rise in the mountains, get their sources from the snows, and that water runs off so rapidly it does the soil very little good; is that true?

Mr. DEBLER. Well, the reason that those streams do not reach the Great Plains region is that irrigators there have passed through the slopes to the east of the mountains, and they have used up those streams, used up all the snow water run-off, excepting only in the case of the Missouri and the Yellowstone. Irrigation started about 1850 in Colorado, spread in all directions, and reached its peak of area during the years of better run-off, about 20 years ago. Since then it has just been a process of stabilizing irrigation, rather than expanding, in that area.

Mr. PARSONS. How many areas, approximately—I assume that the Bureau of Reclamation, either you or Mr. Page can answer this question—I assume the Bureau of Reclamation has made a survey of all parts of the United States that might be utilized in irrigation. How many millions of acres could be reclaimed that would be reasonably profitable, if the Federal Government furnished the money?

Mr. DEBLER. In the Great Plains region, we have 2,000,000 acres irrigated and about 2,500,000 more for which we feel there is sufficient water for irrigation. In the intermountain region we have about 13,400,000 acres irrigated and 6,400,000 acres more to be irrigated. In the west coast region, there are 5,800,000 acres irrigated, and 11,100,000 acres yet to be irrigated.

Mr. PARSONS. That would be about 20,000,000 acres?

Mr. DEBLER. The totals are 21,300,000 irrigated and 22,000,000 more to be irrigated, making a final total of 43,300,000.

Mr. PARSONS. How many families would the 22,000,000 to be irrigated take care of?

Mr. DEBLER. The 22,000,000 still to be irrigated will support 383,000 farm homes. However, of that 21,300,000 now irrigated, about one-half has a very inadequate water supply. When that present area is stabilized with supplemental water, it will provide land for 123,000 new homes. Adding the 123,000 in that area to the 383,000 on the strictly new land, it gives us a total of 506,000 new farm homes to be created by irrigation.

Mr. PARSONS. Or a population of possibly 3,000,000?

Mr. DEBLER. That makes us a farm population of about 3,000,000 and a town population of about two to three times that much more.

Mr. PARSONS. Yes. That would take care of practically all the agricultural migrants we have on the road today, and probably a little more.

What would be the cost of such projects, the initial cost?

Mr. DEBLER. They will average about $100 per acre for the new projects. That makes a total cost for the new projects of about $2,200,000,000.

Mr. CURTIS. Of course, as a matter of reality, to construct those on a sound basis would take quite a period of time, would it not?

Mr. DEBLER. By all means. If we went at our present rate, we wouldn't have that done for 200 years.

Mr. CURTIS. Yes. Now, in connection with the migrants that should be taken care of, and the increase in town population, there is another very important item that we cannot overlook. Take, for example, Scotts Bluff County: It goes without saying that the industrial east has sold many more times the number of automobiles, radios, typewriters, pianos, furniture, and thousands of other things that people buy, in that irrigated section than they have in some of these areas where the population has been on the decline in these last 20 years. So the effect of reclamation is felt throughout the entire nation, as an essential part of our economy, isn't that true?

Mr. DEBLER. That is certainly true. An area of declining population is an area that is putting out no money for anything. An area of increasing population means that the area not only is buying what it desires, but in addition has the funds to augment its own development.

Mr. PAGE. A rather careful study in the Boise territory indicates that about 75 percent of every dollar the farmer receives is spent for eastern manufactures.

Mr. CURTIS. That is a point that the people of the east should not overlook, because it takes labor and pay rolls to produce those products to be sent out to the irrigated sections.

You may proceed, Mr. Debler, if you have anything further along the line of thought you were on.

Mr. DEBLER. I would like to call attention again to the map heretofore referred to. On this map we have indicated with black circles the irrigated territory, and the new irrigation for each State within the region. The stipple in black represents the present irrigated area; and [1] the full black, the area to come. On the lower part of the map, in red, have been shown, to the left, a block partly shaded, the solid red indicating the relative portion of the irrigated area having a full water supply, the unshaded part the portion of the area which needs supplemental water. Alongside are squares entirely unshaded, which show the aggregate area still to be developed. These circles and squares show very clearly the relative areas irrigated and to be irrigated, as they are to scale. The small circle to the right side of the map is a unit of 1,000,000 acres.

The matter I would like to call attention to, however, is the difference in character of irrigation on these areas. On the west coast, practically all combine at least flood control with power, so that the projects have a particular appeal as financially desirable projects. In the Intermountain Region they are partially so, but in the Great Plains Region there is, generally speaking, relatively little need for flood control, and the water resources must be utilized to such an extent that there are limited possibilities of power development. The value of the projects rests almost entirely on irrigation. For that reason, the need of operations under the Wheeler-Case law is greatest in this region, as that law recognizes that the benefit of a project should not be paid back entirely by the farmer. The benefits reach a whole lot beyond the farmer who gets the water. Having power or flood control to assist in repayment, that law permits contributions of other labor in aid of construction on these projects.

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[1] Colors are not shown on map herewith.

Mr. CURTIS. In other words, what the law really does is to take aid from the relief expenditures and make it possible to use these funds for constructive long-time improvements?

Mr. PAGE. Instead of paying out money to buy food supplies foi a few days' use, it results in employing more of these men on building projects that will later on support them indefinitely.

Mr. CURTIS. There are some exceptions to the need for flood control in the region, are there not?

Mr. DEBLER. There are some.

Mr. CURTIS. One of them is the river in Nebraska, the Republican River?

Mr. PAGE. There is need for flood control on the Republican River and on some of the streams farther north.

RECENT POPULATION TRENDS OF GREAT PLAINS AND PACIFIC COAST STATES

Mr. CURTIS. Mr. Page, you made a very apt allusion to Scottsbluff County population trends. Do you have any more or less general observation you would like to make in reference to population trends in the Great Plains States, as against the Mountain and Pacific States, and indicate something of the connection between that and irrigation?

Mr. PAGE. Well, the five Great Plains States had a net loss of population, and on the other hand the Pacific Coast States had an unusual or abnormal growth, due to the emigration to those territories, and the percentages are given in the paper. But there is a very marked difference between the population trends in the Great Plains States following the loss from that area to the Pacific coast. I think the net loss for the five States is over 300,000 people, as is shown by the 1940 census. That is in the 10-year period. And certainly all of those and many more migrated to the West Coast States.

COMPARISON OF RELIEF WITH RECLAMATION EXPENDITURES

Mr. CURTIS. Mr. Page, I was interested in your prepared statement. You quoted some figures on the amount that had been spent for relief in the Great Plains area and compared them with the 38-year expenditures under the Reclamation Act. Will you just read those figures, for the benefit of the Committee?

Mr. PAGE. The best data we could get was that in the 17 Western States various Federal relief agencies had expended $2,500,000,000 for relief. The reports from the typical reclamation project areas in 1937 showed very few water users on relief. And those counties or areas which are outside of the irrigated section in the Great Plains showed an abnormally high per capita cost for relief. In other words, in 137 counties affected by the drought, the very same counties where the population loss was the heaviest, the per capita expenditures for relief averaged $175, and in 179 counties where conditions were less serious, expenditures average $58 per capita. At the very least, $250,000,000 was spent due to the abnormal ratio which existed in the area, and it is perhaps a coincidence that during the 38 years of reclamation approximately the same amount, $250,000,000, has been spent on projects which are now operating, and which have returned something in excess of $2,500,000,000 in crop values and new wealth from those crop values. That indicates the serious discrepancy between those areas which have been suffering from the drought, with its abnormally high relief cost.

Mr. CURTIS. After all, there must be some little truth in the statement, "A stitch in time saves nine." Is that right?

Mr. PAGE. There is no question in my mind about that.

Mr. CURTIS. That for quite a territory here in the United States, an expenditure in reclamation relieves the basic cause of our economic ills, or many of them?

Mr. PAGE. Yes. The only unfortunate thing is that the development of these Western States is limited by the water supply, and the various committees that have studied the Great Plains area, for instance, have decided in their estimates of the possible developments by irrigation, that here is only from 1 to 3 percent of the total area which can ever be developed because of the inadequate water supply.

Mr. CURTIS. Generally speaking, the work that has been done by the Federal Government in promoting pump irrigation is carried out by what department?

Mr. PAGE. I think almost wholly in the Department of Agriculture. We have done little pump irrigation, except from a stream or something of that kind.

RECLAMATION BUREAU NECESSARILY LONG-TERM PROGRAM

Mr. CURTIS. What is your opinion in reference to treating the Reclamation Bureau as more or less an emergency program?

Mr. PAGE. We do not like to consider it as an emergency program, because the creation and planning and construction of a reclamation project cannot be done overnight. It cannot be expedited to the point of meeting a critical emergency. We feel that it is a program which needs careful planning and careful construction to prevent errors of planning. The revision of construction adds to the cost which the farmers have to pay back.

Mr. CURTIS. Yes. Once, in Ohio, a chamber of commerce was very anxious to have a project approved and a big expenditure made in that community. But it might be that the wiser thing, for the benefit of the farmer, over a long period of time, would call for a little extra time in planning, and possibly some very major benefits might come from this further planning; is that so?

Mr. PAGE. I think that has been demonstrated. There are projects which we have built which I think would have been more effective had they been given more careful consideration, and unfortunately we are not in such a position, as the Congressman indicated, that we have a full inventory of irrigation possibilities. We never have had an opportunity to inventory the Western States to find all the best irrigation possibilities, and until that is done I think it is pretty difficult to say that this development is the best that can be created. We are engaged in that type of undertaking on the Colorado now, where the law requires a comprehensive study of the whole basin, and the money has been appropriated.

Mr. Curtis. In other words, when you develop irrigation in a certain territory, you are launching on a program that is going to change the economy of the whole region for a long time to come, and the cost for special planning and more delay than we like to have when we have such distress, is necessary. Is that not true?

Mr. Page. That is true, there is no question about it. The creation of an acre of irrigated land affects from 3 to 4 acres adjacent, and it may change the entire picture over a large area, even though the actual irrigated area is relatively small, and it is something that cannot be done hurriedly, or overnight, and we don't like to regard this program as an emergency measure.

Mr. Curtis. Now, there is one more question that I would like to have your opinion on: Even though there are differences of opinion as to the exact amount of available irrigation to be developed, it is true that we have not yet anywhere near exhausted the development of our natural water resources. Is that true?

Mr. Page. Our estimates are that with all the irrigation, Federal, private, and every other kind, we are just about at the half-way point on the development of irrigated areas. That is, about 21,000,000 acres out of 43,000,000 acres of possible final development.

Mr. Curtis. Yes.

Mr. Page. So we are barely half way.

Mr. Curtis. And is it also true, while it takes time and careful planning, if the Congress saw fit to stand that and speed that up with further appropriations and expansion, that the Bureau would be capable of expanding considerably?

Mr. Page. I think that without doubt that can be done. The only reason we are not in a better position as to that inventory is because of investigational activities being curtailed for so many years. That is, there was very little money made available for many years to study the possibilities, and now that this drought crisis has come on, we have had to expedite our program, with consequent difficulties.

Mr. Curtis. Well, gentlemen, I regret that we won't have time to go into every detail in your written statements, but as you know the committee and our staff will do so in preparing our report to Congress. I know what you have said has been very helpful, and I am thoroughly convinced that so far as this Great Plains area of the United States is concerned, you are dealing with a problem that ties in most directly with the matter that Congress has assigned to this committee to investigate.

HOW RECLAMATION PROGRAM CAN HELP IN SOLUTION OF MIGRANT PROBLEM

The Chairman. Just a moment. Mr. Page and Mr. Debler, I have been tremendously interested in your map and the figures you have given here, but this migrant problem keeps recurring to my mind all the time. This great mass migration, as you stated, is from the Great Plains States to the Pacific coast. I am interested in your map and figures to that extent in this investigation. What part of the picture of migration does reclamation play to help toward the solution?

Mr. Page. I think it can only play a part to the extent that the proper program of the Case-Wheeler law holds these people in this territory, and the extent to which the projects like Grand Coulee and Central

Valley and others, initiating the cultivation for the first time of new land, can take care of those which have already left. Now, it is not possible to take care of the demand for those lands. For instance, in our land openings, when we make available new lands for cultivation, we have application of about 10 persons, well-qualified persons, for every one of the units, and it just isn't possible to keep up with that demand.

The CHAIRMAN. Mr. Page, the migrant problem as it presents itself, becomes heavier all the time. Now, the causes of migration are varied. There isn't a single one, is there?

Mr. PAGE. No.

The CHAIRMAN. There isn't going to be any single solution, is there?

Mr. PAGE. No.

The CHAIRMAN. What I keep harping on all the time is that the American people should understand that these thousands are on the roadside today; they don't move because they want to travel, not because they want to leave their farms. They must travel on account of circumstances over which they have no control.

Mr. PAGE. They are forced out.

The CHAIRMAN. They are forced out; yes. Whether from mechanization, or drought, or whatever it is; they don't want to leave, but there is a lot of worn-out land in the United States, especially in the South and the Southeast, and there is going to be more worn-out land, isn't there?

Mr. PAGE. The process goes on.

The CHAIRMAN. The process goes on all right. Now, what I would like to get from you two gentlemen—let us leave for a moment the irrigated lands—don't you think that there are millions of acres of public land, owned by the Federal Government, nonirrigated, that is better than the land that some of our migrants are leaving in the South and the Southeast?

Mr. PAGE. Well, I don't think either of us are competent to pass judgment on that. I will go this far, and say that there must be large areas which are no worse, at least, than those they have left.

The CHAIRMAN. It couldn't be possible.

Mr. PAGE. No; that is what I have in mind, that there must be large areas, but where those areas are, can they be made properly productive, when you settle a man on them? Those are the questions. Can he hope to subsist permanently? That is the angle of it to which we have given no consideration, except in the irrigation regions, although we have had presented us, on several cases, the possibility of developing cut-over land in North Dakota. Some lands which would justify the expense of stump removal and so on exist, but just how far that would solve the problem I have no idea. But the drainage of certain areas in the South, first of all, has been presented to us as a possible Federal activity, and so has the pulling of some cut-over land in the West, perhaps; they may be worthy of consideration, but we are not competent to give the committee advice on that.

The CHAIRMAN. They tell me in the early days of this country that 85 percent of the people lived on their farms, and their main idea was to get enough to eat and support their families. Now they are down to about 25 percent, with big farms, and they haven't even a vegetable patch on many large farms.

Mr. PAGE. It was, of course, the idea of resisting that trend that led the Congress to pass the law governing the whole reclamation program. The reclamation program has no farm units exceeding 160 acres; on the Columbia Basin Project they passed a law that one man could own only 40 acres. A man and wife could own 80, and it was with the idea of breaking up that trend that the limitation on irrigated land was inserted by Congress.

The CHAIRMAN. Well, of course, food will have a lot to say about the future of this country. Food will probably decide the war; and if the people in this country all had their stomachs full of food we would not have so much worry about that.

Mr. PAGE. That is right.

The CHAIRMAN. We thank you very much, and the ideas you have presented to this committee in your statements are very fine.

Mr. PAGE. Thank you.

Mr. CURTIS. I should like to offer for the record two exhibits, one by Mr. Carl F. Kraenzel, Montana State College, New Frontiers on the Great Plains; and, also, I would like to offer a population-trend survey for the State of Kansas, presented by W. E. Dannefer, State Director, National Reclamation Association.

(The matter referred to is as follows:)

STATEMENT BY CARL F. KRAENZEL, MONTANA STATE COLLEGE[1]

NEW FRONTIERS ON THE GREAT PLAINS

INTRODUCTION

Human suffering in the Great Plains Region of America in recent years is common knowledge. Migration out of the region, high cost of relief, absentee land ownership, excessive farm indebtedness and mortgage foreclosure, extensive tax delinquency, continued feed and seed loans, and current poverty are indicative of the complexity as well as the prevalence of the problems in the Great Plains. Extensive migration out of this region to the Pacific Coast States will not solve the problems for the region, but will result in further tax delinquency, further sparsity of population in relation to adequate economic and social services, a lowered tax base, and other maladjustments. Furthermore, the movement of people into other farming areas and urban centers has contributed to a growth in the number of stranded people in these more favored areas, consisting not alone of the migrants but of people originally resident there.

For the present, it is beyond the scope of probability that any large part of the Great Plains will be converted into a public domain. Some people will always live in the Great Plains. On the assumption that these people should be self-supporting as nearly as possible, no matter what the actual number, what is a likely approach to the solution of the conditions in the Great Plains?

The thesis of this paper is as follows: The Great Plains has a physical environment very different from the physical environment of the humid regions to the east and along the Pacific coast. The major characteristics of the culture that was carried into the Great Plains region were developed in the humid regions of the world and the Nation and were not adequately adapted to the peculiar conditions of the Great Plains physical environment. This lack of adaptation between physical environment and culture is the source of many complex problems now extant on the plains. These problems, created by man, are, therefore, subject to control or adjustment by man. But it will require adjustment of the culture to the pecularities of the physical environment.

Incidentally, another reason for presenting this paper is to suggest that the cultural approach to the study of man-land problems might serve as a method of getting at the economic and social difficulties in areas outside the Great Plains.

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[1] Title of associate agricultural economist, but field of research and teaching is in rural sociology. This paper was read at the Pullman meeting by O. A. Parsons, assistant agricultural economist, in the absence of the author.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

In order not to be misunderstood, it is necessary to define a number of terms used in this paper. The more important of these include region, regionalism, culture, relation between culture and physical environment, and the Great Plains.

Regions.—By region is here meant a large area having similarity of geography and physical environment. Similarities in climate, rainfall, temperature, soil types and structure, topography and relief of terrain, and natural plant and animal life all contribute to defining a region. The transition from one physical region to another is usually not abrupt and clear-cut but gradual, and the boundary itself may represent an area rather than a narrow line.[2]

There are other indexes for delimiting regions, such as areas of metropolitan influence, regions of administration by government and private business, areas of political influence and areas of cultural similarity. The literature on regions is indeed numerous and often contributes to confusion. In this paper, we are concerned with regions defined by physical and natural factors.

Regionalism.—Regionalism is here used to include those forces and social processes which make for a cultural, political, administrative, economic, and social unity of an area having similarity in physical environment. Regionalism should not be confused with sectionalism. Sectionalism implies self-sufficiency, independence, and separation, in a political sense, from a larger area of influence or domination. Regionalism, on the other hand, means that the particular region is a part of a larger area, is dependent upon the larger area, but also has peculiarities that require adjustment within the region. In this sense, a region recognizes that it is dependent upon a larger area of influence in order to achieve its fullest development, but the larger area of influence recognizes that, for the fullest development of the region and the larger area, consistent adaptations to local conditions are necessary and desirable. Cooperation rather than conflict, toleration rather than domination and subjugation are typical of the relations between the region and the larger area.[3]

Culture.—Culture has reference to all the man-made objects, philosophies, ways of thinking and acting, social organization, traditions, tools, and implements as well as ethical and moral valuations in a given area. It is the social environment that has been handed down from the past, which operates in the present, and shapes the future. Culture grows and changes, can increase in complexity, is a source of group and individual motivation and control, and assists in shaping the purposes and goals of man. It is the means by which man has accomplished his control of nature. The total culture can be separated into component units which are a "whole" in themselves. The differences in these component units make for the differences between cultures in different areas.[4]

Relation between culture and physical environment.—There are those who believe and attempt to show that the physical environment always determines the social organization and culture.[5] In contrast, there are those who believe and attempt to prove that culture can develop independently of physical environment.[6] The actual truth is probably somewhere between these two extremes. Under some conditions and during the development of some cultures, geographic factors may be more important than culture; under other conditions, culture may be more important. Either sets a limit to the dominating influence exacted by the other. Problems apparently arise when areas having striking contracts in physical environment are bound together within the confines of the same culture area.

The Great Plains.—The Great Plains, as here used, includes the area west of the one hundredth meridian line, from Canada into Texas, and westward to the foothills of the Rockies. The one hundredth meridian line passes near Jamestown, N. Dak., in a southerly direction, and is in the vicinity of the 20-inch annual rainfall line. West of this line, the rainfall averages less than 20 inches.

This represents an area nearly 1,000 miles in length and from 225 to 250 miles in width. It includes roughly 266,000,000 acres of territory, 14 percent of the total area of the United States. Nearly 2¾ millions people live within the region, or about 2¼ percent of the United States total.[7] Parts of 10 States, covering 259 counties, lie within its border.

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[2] For a definition of region, see National Resources Board Report for December 1935, chap. 12; and the Encyclopedia of Social Sciences, vol. 7, revised edition, 1937.

[3] For a detailed discussion of Regionalism in this sense see Odum, Howard, Southern Regions, University of North Carolina Press, 1935. Odum, Howard, and Moore, H. E., American Regionalism, Henry Holt, 1938.

[4] See any textbook on sociology or anthropology, or the Encyclopedia of Social Sciences.

[5] See especially the writings of Ellsworth Huntington, Ellen Churchill Semple, and other geographers.

[6] See the writings of anthropologists generally.

[7] According to the 1930 census.

There may be some question concerning the boundaries of the area. By changing a few of the physical environment criteria used to determine the Great Plains Region, it would have been possible to include portions of the Rockies and some of the area west of the Rockies. The actual delimitation of the region is partially governed by the purpose to be accomplished. The present definition is, however, sufficient for the purpose of this paper.

THE GREAT PLAINS PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT

The Great Plains physical environment is characterized by extreme variability and fluctuations and is semiarid in character. It is variable in temperature, both as to rapidity and degree. It has extremes in wind velocity, topography and relief, soil types, and other natural phenomena.[8]

Climatical variations.—Temperature variations are extreme in the Great Plains, within seasons as well as between seasons. The blizzard at 40° below zero, the midwinter chinook, and the drought-creating, dust-blowing heat waves are typical. The frost-free period varies considerably from year to year, and the variations in daily temperature are extreme.

Precipitation variations.—The form of precipitation shows great variations ranging from "killing" blizzards to light and gentle snow; from heavy downpours of cloudburst nature, frequently accompanied by heavy hail, to a gentle and light falling 3-day rain; from morning dew to morning heat. The average precipitation is less than 18 inches, which is the margin for crop production. Hence, the deviation from this margin in terms of amount and time of rainfall results in crop failures or bountiful yields. The usual droughts and the sparsity of rainfall make possible an accumulation of plant nutrients in the soil, not lost by leaching, so that more than 18 inches of rainfall will result in heavy yields.

A comparison between Montana and Iowa is interesting at this point. During a period of 37 years the average annual precipitation for Iowa was 31 inches, compared with slightly more than 15 for Montana. In only 1 year (1910) did precipitation in Iowa drop as low as 20 inches. Although precipitation varied in Iowa, it never was as low as the average for Montana. At Havre, Mont., only 2 in a series of 42 years between 1895 and 1936 had more than 20 inches of rainfall. Eight years had fewer than 10 inches of precipitation.

Table 1 shows the precipitation for a 42-year period from 1895 to 1936, inclusive, for some Great Plains and midwestern stations and is self-explanatory.

Soil-type variations.—The above differences in temperature and rainfall have, during a long geological period, made for a wide variety of soils. The movements of glaciers, the formation of bodies of water when the ice receded, and erosion have produced all types of soils, topography, and relief of the terrain. Scattered badlands, isolated mountains, clay hills and buttes, fertile river bottoms, table-flat benches, smooth plains, and rolling hill country are all indicative of variations in soil type and topography.

TABLE 1.—*Annual precipitation for the period 1895 to 1936 classed by amount for certain Great Plains and midwestern stations*

Station	Number of years more than 30 inches	Number of years more than 20 inches	Number of years less than 10 inches	Number of years from 10 to 20 inches
Great Plains stations:				
Havre, Mont	0	2	8	32
Bismarck, N. Dak	0	3	2	37
Huron, S. Dak	1	17	1	24
North Platte, Nebr	1	10	0	32
Dodge City, Kans	2	18	1	23
Amarillo, Tex	2	20	1	21
Midwestern stations:				
Minneapolis, Minn	12	39	0	3
Madison, Wis	23	41	0	1
Des Moines, Iowa	20	39	0	3
Springfield, Ill	31	42	0	0
Columbia, Mo	38	42	0	0
Fort Smith, Ark	35	41	0	1

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[8] See Atlas of American Agriculture, U. S. Printing Office, 1936.

"Normal" precipitation.—Normal precipitation is defined as a plentiful supply of rainfall, more than 20 inches. Such is the opinion of the majority of farm and livestock people who have moved into the Great Plains during bumper-crop years. In the past 10 years, the Great Plains farmers have been looking forward to "normal rainfall." But in the Great Plains the normal rainfall is considerably below 20 inches. In fact, "normal" rainfall on the Great Plains is represented by one or a series of dry years followed by one or a series of wet years. Arid or semiarid climate on the Plains does not mean a uniformly small amount of rainfall, but uniformity in irregular rainfall. Nor is this irregularity cyclical in nature. There appears to be nothing predictable about the amount of rainfall.

A study of tree-ring growths in the vicinity of Havre, Mont., shows that rainfall may have varied from one-fourth of average to more than double the average.[9] This study goes back to 1784, and the data show that there have been wet and dry periods of from 5 to 10 years in length, succeeding one another. Apparently a severe drought period occurred after 1784, when 18 out of 24 years had less than average precipitation. These same data show that 18 out of 20 years prior to 1937 had less than average precipitation. Again, during the last 135 years there have been six periods, varying from 4 to 9 years each, during which precipitation did not fall below the average, and twice during the last 135 years there were periods of 30 years during which precipitation fell below average only six times.

Native plant life.—The native plant life is evidence of the difference in physical environment between the Great Plains area and the more humid regions to the east and far west. The Great Plains is a treeless country and long grass is replaced by short grass. Grama grass, buffalo grass, sage brush, gallata grass, wire grass, muhlenbergia, western wheat grass, and needle grass are evidence that nature, over a long period of time, developed plant life that was adapted to the vagaries, fluctuations, variability, and severity of the Great Plains physical environment.[10]

Native animal life.—The native animal life on the Great Plains is characterized by ability to move great distances rapidly and do without water for long periods of time.[11] This is a form of adaptation to the physical environment.

The antelope, a grass eater, physically very hardy, requires little water and is especially fleet of foot and travels great distances. Similarly, the buffalo was a roamer of the Plains, able to travel great distances for food and water. He was especially well adapted to stand the fluctuations in temperature and rainfall on the Plains.

The jack rabbit feeds on grass and brush, requires little water, and is a very mobile animal. The prairie dog requires no water, lives on grass and roots, and burrows in the ground. The gopher is similarly adapted to the region of the Plains. The wolf and the coyote, the meat eaters, can travel great distances, live off the buffalo, antelope, pack rabbit, prairie dog, gopher, mice, and insects.

These are the typical Great Plains native animals and all show adaptation to the physical environment of the Plains.

THE ADAPTED INDIAN CULTURE [12]

The American Plains Indian had learned to adjust himself to the physical environment in which he lived. The buffalo formed the core of his culture. It served him with food; skin for tents, clothing, blankets, and footwear; was the center of his occupational, religious, and recreational life; and supplied him with fuel and bones for tool making. Since the buffalo was a migratory animal the Indian also was a migrant. The Indian's tent, his social organization, customs, and traditions were adapted to the need for migration. By this means he was able to live on the Great Plains.

THE CATTLEMAN'S CULTURE

A study of the original cattleman's way of living shows that the cattleman's culture originated in Texas immediately after the Civil War, where it was influenced by the ways and customs of the Spaniards. The Spanish culture was suited to a vigorous physical environment. Spain itself is a semiarid land and its system of subjugating the conquered was peculiarly suited to exploiting the natives of a semiarid and arid region.

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[9] These data were compiled by A. E. Bell, formerly superintendent of the Northern Montana Experiment Station located at Havre, Mont. The data are unpublished.

[10] See Atlas of American Agriculture, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1936.

[11] See Webb, W. P., The Great Plains, Ginn & Co., 1931.

[12] See Webb, W. P., The Great Plains; Wissler, Clark, The American Indian, Oxford University Press, 1922; Wissler, Clark, The Relation of Nature to Man in Aboriginal America, Oxford University Press, 1926.

The early cattleman's culture, consisting of the trail herd, the branding and round-up system, the regulations governing the trailing of the herds, and use of land, the handling of strays, was adapted to the physical environment of the Plains.[13] The ranch headquarters were usually situated along water courses and the cattle ranged for hundreds of miles in any direction. Often the ranch headquarters were in the mountains and the cattle were trailed into the plains country.

Again mobility made it possible for the cattleman's culture to exist in the Plains. It was not until Eastern and European capital came into the Great Plains after 1870, resulting in the overstocking and overgrazing of the range, that difficulties began to appear. Until that time the old cattleman's culture was peculiarly adapted to the Great Plains physical environment.

THE COMING OF THE AGRICULTURIST

After 1800, the Great Plains was invaded from east to west. First came the era of expeditions, among them those led by Lewis and Clark (1803–06), Pike (1806–07), and Long (1819–20). The region became known as the Great American Desert from the descriptions furnished by these and later explorers.

The American trails.—Next came the period of the great American trails. They led from east to west, usually following water courses.[14] Examples are the Santa Fe Trail, the Oregon Trail, the Mormon Trail, and others. These trails were the means of jumping a vast desert to get from one wooded, well-watered territory to another. Whenever the trails cut across country from one river course to another, the travelers were confronted with lack of food, water, and fuel. Many present-day highways and railroads still mark the courses of these trails.

The pioneer woodsman confronted by the Plains.—Next came the agriculturists. The farming frontier, in its westward advance, had reached the Missouri River at the western edge of northern Missouri by 1850. During the next 20 years, the frontier advanced "only 2 days' ride on horseback from the Iowa and Missouri boundaries." The reason for the hesitation in population advance came largely from the fact that the pioneer woodcutter and farmer was faced with a treeless, waterless expanse. The forest-country pioneer agriculturist was a woodsman who lived by hunting and from products raised in a small clearing. He built his home and barns as well as fences out of the timber from his clearing. Usually he settled along some stream. This furnished him with food and was also a means of travel. All at once this pioneer was faced by a great expanse that was already cleared by nature. Grass was plentiful, but game was scarcer than in the forest country. Building and fencing materials were lacking. So were fuel and water.

New inventions to conquer the Plains.—To advance onto the Plains it was necessary to await certain inventions. Webb gives a dramatic picture of a few of these.[15] According to Webb, the Colt revolver came into wide use at this time. The early pioneers were hunters with "long guns," forest weapons. On horseback or afoot these "long guns" were cumbersome and ineffective against the game and especially the Indians. The latter, on horseback and with bow and arrow, were able to run away from the "long-gun" fighter until the long gun required reloading. Then the Indian had the advantage. The Colt revolver, a short, handy gun, turned the balance in favor of the whites.

It took the American pioneer of log-cabin background a long time to learn to construct and live in a sod house. The adjustment for the pioneer women who came West to meet their "lovers," only to find they had to spend the rest of their lives in a sod house, required a tremendous shift in values, ways of thinking, and ways of living.

Next came the problem of how to confine the domestic stock. There are still remnants of large nurseries in Illinois, Iowa, and Missouri where hedges and prickley trees were grown, to be shipped West for fencing. Extensive settlement in the Plains had to await the invention of the barbed-wire fence. The development of this invention offers an interesting page in the history of the need for adaptation to the Great Plains physical environrent.

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[13] See Osgood, E. S., The Days of the Cattleman, University of Minnesota Press; Webb, W. P., The Great Plains, and other historical writings.

[14] See Duffus, R. L., Santa Fe Trail; Ghent, William J., the Road to Oregon; Parkman, F., the Oregon Trail; and others.

[15] Webb, W. P., the Great Plains.

The development of the windmill to furnish water for house and stock is another illustration of an invention necessitated by the forces of the physical environment. The battle over irrigation rights and water use, a struggle between miners and farmers, represents another point at which adjustment to the physical environment had to be accomplished in order to utilize the fertile farm lands of the West.

The need for additional new inventions to live on the Plains.—This, however, is the point at which Webb stopped his analysis. Were there no other inventions that had to be accomplished before the real battle of man against environment was accomplished in the Great Plains? Did the environment become more favorable so that culture traits, imported from humid areas, could survive without undergoing any further tests? Have the last 10 to 15 years represented a period when the Great Plains physical environment has more nearly approached its normal so that the ideas carried into the Great Plains since the revolver, the sod house, and the barbed-wire fence are being subjected to a test of natural selection?

This represents a field of difficult and unexplored research, and is the problem upon which this paper centers. Just how well are the ways of living and thinking, the tools and equipment, the prevailing philosophy and customs, in short, the culture, adapted to the demands of the Great Plains physical environment? What is the relation between culture and physical environment? How long and under what conditions can culture develop independent of physical environment, and when do the two supplement one another? Have we arrived at a point of conflict between culture and physical environment? It is the total culture ill adapted to the physical environment or only parts of it and what are these parts? How can the culture for an area be adapted to the demands of the physical environment and still function effectively within the scope of a larger culture?

There is evidence to show that culture and physical environment complement one another. In the Great Plains this alinement between culture and physical environment is much more sensitive than in the case of the humid areas of the Nation. The cost of relief, feed and seed loans, and human suffering in terms of excessive debt, tax delinquency, foreclosure, and nonresident land ownership are evidence of maladjustment between the existing culture and the physical environment. It is doubtful whether feed and seed loans, relief, rehabilitation, and higher incomes to Great Plains people are more than an economic and political stopgap and temporary expedient unless these efforts are directed at bringing about fundamental changes in culture at certain points, so as to bring culture in alinement with the limits imposed by the physical environment. In a nation as large as the United States with as great variations in physical environment as exist, cultural differences must be expected and encouraged. This will require that the Nation as well as the region become cognizant of the need for differences in culture and adjustment of culture to physical environment. Channels for the development and maintenance of these cultural differences must be established and fostered. This means that regionalism, in the aforementioned sense rather than sectionalism or paternalism, must be the basis for these cultural variations within a large political domain.

UNADAPTED CULTURE TRAITS ON THE PLAINS

It now becomes necessary to offer some evidence in support of this position. Obviously conclusive proof is not available. Considerable research is still necessary. Nor is this research alone within the confines of the subject matter of sociology, economics, geography, or anthropology. It requires the coordinated effort of all these and other scientists.

A study of geography, economics, sociology, history, and other subject matter shows that there is a relationship between culture and physical environment on the following four points: (1) Population density, (2) degree of urbanization, (3) occupational specialization, and (4) division of labor. Under the last would come specialization of economic, social, political, recreational, educational, production, and consumption functions.

In diagram A we can assume two widely different types of physical environment. For convenience one has been designated as a humid, the other as an arid environment. Theoretically, it is apparent that wide variations may exist in respect to the four factors mentioned between the arid and humid regions. The arid environment will tend toward a sparse population, with little, if any, urbanization. Most people would be engaged in agriculture or closely related occupations, and the division of labor would not be great. The family would probably be of a patriarchial type, having political, religious, recreational, and educational functions to perform.

DIAGRAM A.—*Comparison of cultural characteristics in arid and humid areas*

Cultural characteristics	Arid region	Humid region
(1) Population density	Low and sparse	Low and sparse, high and dense, or both.
(2) Degree of urbanization	Low and rural	Low and rural, high and urban, or both.
(3) Occupational specialization	Low and agricultural	Low and agricultural, high and industrial, or both.
(4) Division of labor	Low and family centered	Low and family centered, high and contractual or special interest group centered, or both.

In the case of the more favorable or humid area, these characteristics may vary all the way from what they are in the arid region to a more complex situation. Conceivably, the population might be very dense, much of it concentrated in urban areas, and engaged in both agricultural and industrial pursuits. The division of labor can conceivably be very high and on a contractual and special interest group basis. This might mean a relative weakening of the family and a specialization as to function in that special interest groups might develop to sponsor the political, recreational, religious, educational, and other functions in the community.

It is conceivable that the agricultural areas and populations in such humid areas can also become urbanized to the extent of taking on most of the industrial and urban parts of the total culture.

In a cultural area, government, or political state where there are two or more distinct types of physical environments such as the arid and humid, and where the humid environment is dominated by a highly urbanized, industrialized and commercialized culture, it is possible that the arid region will be dominated by these same urbanized, industrial, and commercial aspects. This is especially true if there is a high development of transportation and communication facilities and when these are so constructed as to feed all types of culture traits from the humid (urban, industrial) to the arid regions. Under these conditions, it would be highly probable that the culture established in the arid region would be out of line and in a position of conflict with the physical environment in the arid region.

Is there any evdence that the culture traits[16] of the humid areas to the east of the Great Plains have been imported into the semiarid Great Plains without being adapted to the physical environment in the Great Plains? It is possible to enumerate only a few of these.

Settlement pattern.—In eastern Montana there is evidence to show that the agriculturalists attempted to settle themselves on the same basis as in Iowa, Minnesota, Wisconsin, or the Middle West generally. There are large areas, now mostly abandoned, where there is an expensively grated county road on almost every section line, with a fence on each side of the road. Expensive culverts and bridges still are monuments to a midwestern way of living.

Organization of township government.—In western North Dakota, the township government, frequently consisting of a congressional township of 6 square miles, is still in existence. The organization of this pattern has broken over into Montana, taking the form of school district organization on a congressional township basis or some multiple of it, although the county is the smallest political unit in Montana.

Dry-land settlement and farming carried into irrigated areas.—Montana has many illustrations where the size of farm, because of the homestead policy, is often as large in an irrigated as in an unirrigated area, and where farmers on an irrigated farm attempt to raise wheat, a dry-land crop, on irrigated fields while their friends and neighbors, living on dry-land farms, attempt to raise a garden.

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[16] The total culture can be broken down into component parts that are unified wholes in themselves. These component parts are known as patterns, complexes, and traits, depending upon their interrelationships. These are only relative terms and tools of analysis. For example, our pattern of tranportation is made up of the following complexes: Air, water, and land transportation. Each of these is made up of traits. For example, land transportation is made up of railway, truck, auto, horse, and foot travel. Each one of these is made up of separate wholes. Under auto travel we have gasoline, electrical, and diesel motor driven conveyances.

Size of farm conditioned by homestead laws.—On the whole, farms are too small in the Great Plains region. This is the result of homesteading practices. The homestead laws are also responsible for the isolated farmstead and settlement practices. Generally speaking, a 160-year farm is large enough to support a family in the Middle West and East, but not in the arid and semiarid sections of the Nation. Later adjustments in homestead legislation, to permit acquisition of larger tracts of land, were encumbered by much red tape and other humid area ideas such as the requirement of growing trees during the tree-claim boom. Also, much of this legislation came into effect after settlement had already taken place and some settlers were convinced that 160 acres was a large enough farm. Furthermore, settlement had often proceeded so far that the established pattern could not be easily changed.

County busting as a means of livelihood.—In conformity with the midwestern idea that a county should consist of some combination or a multiple of congressional townships and that the county offices must be within close proximity of every farmer, county busters made a living at breaking large counties into smaller units, baiting the various communities to offer concessions. A new Montana county emerged as recently as 1925 and there is a good fight on at present to create another county out of one of the smaller ones now in existence.

Farm organization modeled after the midwestern style.—Many Great Plains farms have been so set up that the high lands and benches were used for crops and hay fields, while the low lands were devoted to pasture. Any dams that were constructed to hold water were usually located along the section line so that the water could not be used on the operator's land except for livestock. Under these conditions of farm organization it was impossible to use the spring and summer rain floods, under a flood irrigation system, without rearranging the entire crop—hay land and pasture—organization of the farm. Another illustration of unadapted farm organization is represented by events at Malta, Mont. Several thousand acres, now included in the Milk River resettlement project in Montana. were irrigated and irrigable farm land held by land speculators and used for grazing and wild hay, while hundreds of families were stranded on the adjacent dry land. By means of the project, the dry-land farmers were moved on this irrigated and irrigable land. In this instance, individual rights and privileges for a few meant suffering for many in addition to high costs of relief, tax delinquency, and other maladjustments. The project itself is an attempt to develop an adapted way of living.

Entire history of settlement shows importation of culture traits.—A study of the history of territorial days of the Great Plains region shows that the Governors, the judges, and other administrators were politicians, lawyers, and well-intentioned citizens from New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and other Eastern States. Frequently, the Governors and judges became involved in intense conflict with the local residents who wanted to have things done according to local conditions. Frequently, such officials were removed only to have others from the East replace them. Conflicts between cattlemen and agriculturists, between farmers and miners, and between agriculturists and townspeople frequently had their origin in "what was the best way" to accomplish certain legal and governmental objectives.

CONCLUSION

These illustrations suffice to show the introduction of culture traits and patterns ill-adapted to the arid and semiarid conditions of the Great Plains physical environment. Rehabilitation of people in the region will require changes in the existing culture in order to adapt it more effectively to the limitations imposed by the physical environment. For example, the idea of area diversification has enthusiastic supporters, though few in number. By area diversification is meant not diversification of enterprise for a given contiguous piece of land, but diversification by community. Under this condition all farm operators would have a piece of irrigated land. Each would also have a piece of grazing land in a grazing area, and a piece of dry cropland. Diversification would be practiced from the standpoint of the farm operator, but not from the standpoint of contiguity in space of farm land.

Area diversification might prove to be an adapted way of farming in the Great Plains. Where irrigation is a prospect it might be possible to have the population concentrated on the home-base farm of small size in the irrigated region. The surrounding dry land might be used for grazing and dry-land crops to supplement the home base, the land being used in conformity with best land-use practices. Modern transportation and mechanization would favor such area diversification of the farm. Would such a practice be a better adapted farming system than that now in existence?

What are other adapted settlement, farm-organization, social-organization, population-distribution, and thought-organization patterns better adapted to the region? Where should these adapted concepts originate and how should they become a part of the culture? Is it necessary for the Great Plains to have a cultural center of its own where adapted ideas are developed and promoted and where ideas and traits from outside the area undergo a test and modification in conformity with the needs of the region? Would a culture, adapted to the Great Plains be totally different from that of the rest of the Nation, or would it be different at strategic points only? Finally, does this cultural approach to the study of regional problems in regions other than the Great Plains offer an opportunity to solve some of the difficulties in these other regions? Would a recognition of the fact of regional cultures on the part of other regions make the development of a regional culture for the Great Plains an easier task?

LETTER FROM W. E. DANNEFER, STATE DIRECTOR, NATIONAL RECLAMATION ASSOCIATION

SEPTEMBER 14, 1940.

Hon. Congressman JOHN H. TOLAN,
Chairman, Special Committee Investigating the Interstate
Migration of Destitute Citizens,
Senate Chamber, State House, Lincoln, Nebr.

DEAR MR. TOLAN: I beg leave to file with you a complete population trend survey for the State of Kansas from 1880 to 1939 inclusive. This shows, first, the number residing on the farms; second, those living in incorporated towns; third, the total number in the county; fourth, the increase or decrease in the farm population for the period; fifth, the increase or decrease in the incorporated towns; sixth, the total loss in farm population figured from the high point; seventh, the percent of the farm population loss. (The tables showing the aforementioned population trend, with the exception of examples showing the trend, in Cloud, Jewell, and Republic Counties, are filed with the record.)

This is tabulated, showing the farm population loss of the county, the percent of the farm population loss together with the nonrepayable Federal funds spent in each county from 1933 to 1939 inclusive. This includes A. A. A. payments.

The tabulation by counties is taken in 10-year periods for the 50 years, 1880 to 1930, then by 2-year periods for the next 8 years and then for the 1-year period ending March 1, 1939. This is taken from the annual assessors' return and the nonrepayable funds is taken from the report of the office of Government reports. I anticipate that the report of the nonrepayable funds is not all inclusive, for very likely some has been missed.

The tabulation of the total farm population loss of the State is 338,130. This is the net loss; however, as births exceeded deaths annually by about seven-tenths of 1 percent the total loss on the farms in the 10-year period would be the number above stated plus 7 percent of the total number residing on the farm in 1930 which would naturally increase the total migration from the farm.

Using the figures from the Federal census, Kansas, as a whole, shows a total decline of 82,000—the largest of any State; yet during the same period births exceeded deaths by 110,000, leaving the net loss by migration for the 10-year period 192,000, far above that of any other State.

From the economic condition now existing in the western two-thirds of the State the migration in the next 6-month period, September 1, 1940, to March 1, 1941, will exceed any other like period in the State's history; farm sales and people leaving to seek a new start elsewhere are far above any like period. These are mostly going to California and Idaho, as is shown by sample of bill attached. (Sale notice filed with committee record and not printed.) When we take into consideration the condition surrounding those remaining who are hopelessly involved getting Work Projects Administration loans and grants from the Farm Security Administration, getting supplies from the Surplus Commodities Corporation, and of our clients of the Farm Credit Administration. These are so hopelessly involved that 38 percent more will be forced to migrate within the next few years.

I attach hereto a copy of a brief résumé outlining the situation in three typical north central Kansas counties. (See p. 1600.) In spite of the enormous amount spent by the Government in nonreimbursable funds in these counties the rural relief load has continually grown as has the debts of the farmers and the counties have had to levy the limit tax rate to take care of the relief load and then appeal to the State Tax Commission for special authority to increase the tax rate and in many cases issue in addition thereto relief bonds.

In spite of the enormous amounts spent which has only been for a mere subsistence, the number of those on relief has steadily grown and the plight of those on relief grows steadily worse and the debt burden increased to a point which they can never hope to repay and they realize that slowly but surely the time will come when they too will be forced to abandon and seek a new start elsewhere for none of the projects undertaken in this State have had for their objective the elimination of the cause for the need of relief and that is in a water-utilization program. Of the $446,000,000 spent in Kansas in nonrepayable funds a small percentage of this amount used in the right direction would have gone a long way toward making these farmers self-supporting and thereby eliminating the need for further relief.

People migrate from place to place actuated by the two prime fundamentals of human existence: To get away from intolerable conditions and to better themselves. These farmers have hung on as long as they can and it is only when they have reached the bottom do they reluctantly give up the home ties and associations where they had hoped to become permanently located and seek a new start elsewhere.

The effect of migration in the country towns on property values and rents; the need for business and professional services declines in a like ratio; and the losses suffered in these country trading centers is now beginning to be felt in the county-seat towns and the processing and wholesaling centers. The decline in property values, rents, and incomes in the country village, the county seat, processing and wholesaling centers will result in a like ratio of loss of business volume, prices and rents of business and residential properties.

Particularly will this be felt in the building and supplies trade with a total net farm migration of 338,000, an average of four and one-half persons per family has vacated 80,000 farm homes and eventually will cause a like percentage in vacancies in residential and business units in the towns and wholesaling centers that supplies this trade causing business suspensions, and so forth. When we add to the number of vacancies caused by this migration the number of new residential units resulting from the drive of the Federal Housing Administration for new construction which only creates and aggravates the number of residential and business vacancies and these vacancies bidding against each other for sale and rent will eventually force a large decline in prices and rents with such subsequent heavy losses.

This is further shown in the country school situation in the fact that 1,200 rural schools have been discontinued, over 1,300 have less than six pupils each and therefore must be discontinued in the near future throwing 2,500 or more rural teachers out of employment.

In the central one-third of the State, particularly the north section, there are many areas that can be classified as blighted. In these particular areas the net farm income is below that needed to produce a living for its operators. The amount of the cost for relief for caring for these in such blighted areas plus the loan of the Farm Security and other Federal lending agencies who will eventually suffer heavy losses makes of these areas a continuing relief burden and they will be eventually forced to migrate. The continuing costs of caring for these relief clients will and in many instances already has, exceeded the sale prices of the farms they occupy. It would therefore be much cheaper for the Government in its land retirement program to buy these farms and return them to the natural native grasses, resettle the clients on more productive farms in the same area or within 20 or 30 miles on irrigated land which is now being studied by the Reclamation Bureau.

These families would therefore become self-supporting and as soon as construction starts could be given labor in building the works that would make them independent of the needs for future relief. This could be done at great savings to the Government and the irrigation works would repay the costs under the usual Reclamation Bureau terms.

Your particular attention is directed toward the résumé of the three counties in north central Kansas where this particular situation exists. These people can be made self-supporting in their own community with far less costs than has heretofore been expended.

Kansas, up to date, has not developed a water-utilization program; however by showing the need and the cause of the migration we have induced the Reclamation Bureau to make the study and surveys toward that objective and these are now being carried forward.

To sum it up: First, increased appropriations for the Reclamation Bureau for construction work and investigation of new projects; second, increase the scope of operation and appropriation of the Case-Wheeler bill without limiting the size of projects undertaken; third, in the arid and semiarid States or the 17 States of the Reclamation Bureau area under the Federal Works Administration as emergency relief give preference to those projects that have for their objective water conservation, irrigation thereby eliminating the cause of relief and the necessity of future relief; fourth, assign 50 more Civilian Conservation Corps camps to the Reclamation Bureau. Applied in its liberal sense with suggestions herein contained will eliminate the relief both now and in the future and thereby stop the drought migration at its source.

Without the enormous expenditures of the various Federal relief agencies, supported by the lending of the different Federal credit agencies, wholesale migration would have resulted, with a collapse of various business volume and the entire social structure; and it is to cure this situation that the above suggestions are made with enclosures setting up the condition existing. The 80,000 vacated farm homes, the 2,500 discontinued country school houses are grim monuments to this migration.

Respectfully submitted for your consideration.

Sincerely yours,

W. E. Dannefer,
State Director National Reclamation Association.

Attached herewith is a brief résumé of the agricultural and financial situation surrounding the White Rock project, known as irrigation district No. 1, of Republic, Cloud, and Jewell Counties, in Kansas.

Since 1910, when the ground water table began to lower there has been a steady migration away from here. The farm total population loss of Cloud County, 5,943; Jewell County, 9,780; and Republic County, 6,619. The total farm population migration for the three counties amounts to 22,349, with an average farm family of 4½ persons, this has vacated 1,321 farm homes in Cloud County, 2,175 in Jewell; and 1,421 in Republic County or total 4,967 in the three counties. When the farm population increases so does land prices as a general thing and the reverse is true when the people leave a country. This farm population of migration which now amounts to an average of 51 percent has caused a farm land price decline of about 65 percent and this loss to the individual farm owner has in most cases wiped out the life savings of at least two-thirds of our farmers. Its effect on business and property values and business volume in the trading centers has or will be in a like ratio or decline.

The Office of Government Reports disclose that a nonreimburseable fund, that is money that does not have to be payed back, that the Federal Government has spent in each of the counties of the area now amounts to $3,246,000 in Cloud County, $3,737,000 in Jewell County; and $2,489,000 in Republic County or a total of $9,472,000. This does not take into consideration the enormous sums raised by the county, cities, towns, and school districts which has wholly or partially gone into relief and the commissioners of the various counties are hard pressed to raise the needed funds to care for the relief. None of the projects built or on which this money has been spent had for its objective the elimination of the cause and need for relief and that can only be had by a water utilization program and irrigation that would make these people self-supporting. As it is, after each project they are a little worse off than before. Had this same money been used on an irrigation program it would all be repayable and the need would be reduced by placing every employable person in the building of your project and when the project was completed they could find employment in the irrigated sections so that project will be annually producing an enormous amount of new wealth, increasing property values, and decreasing taxes.

In addition thereto the Farm Security Administration has in Cloud County 136 families to whom the loans and grants total $112,122; and in Jewell County 322 families who have received $323,055; and in Republic County 118 families who have received $92,075; or a total for the three counties of the area of 575 families who have received $524,252.

In addition thereto, the various governmental lending agencies have loaned in Cloud County, $1,065,000; in Jewell County, $1,519,000; and in Republic County, $1,185,000, and the major portion of this enormous amount loaned can be traced to the fact that the farms did not pay the operating cost. To restate again, the Government has loaned this area $4,312,000 and in addition in nonrepayable funds sent were $9,472,000, or a total of $13,784,000, all because these farms produced less than a living to the people that operated them. Is it any wonder that 22,300 people have left the farm of this area, and that unless irrigation is brought in at least 7,800 more people on the farms will be forced to migrate within the next 5 years.

POPULATION TREND IN CLOUD COUNTY

Year	Farm	City	Total	Farm	City
1880	11,290	2,861	14,151		
1890	12,694	5,829	12,532	[1] 1,404	[1] 2,968
1900	11,633	6,146	17,779	[2] 1,061	[1] 316
1910	10,447	7,901	18,328	[2] 1,186	[1] 1,755
1920	9,222	9,248	17,470	[2] 1,225	[1] 347
1930	8,580	8,837	17,417	[2] 642	[1] 489
1932	8,683	8,657	14,340	[1] 516	[2] 593
1934	8,741	8,816	17,557	[1] 58	[1] 159
1935	8,377	9,370	17,747	[2] 203	[1] 533
1936	8,175	9,107	17,372	[2] 566	[1] 381
1937	7,789	8,866	16,655	[2] 588	[2] 504
1938	7,706	9,067	16,773	[2] 569	[2] 130
1939	7,610	9,078	16,679	[2] 105	[1] 11
1940	7,626	9,019	16,645	[1] 25	[2] 59
Number loss, 5,943.					
Percent loss, 46.					

POPULATION TREND IN JEWELL COUNTY

1870	188		188		
1880	16,172	1,303	17,475	[1] 15,984	[1] 1,303
1890	17,100	2,338	19,349	[1] 839	[1] 839
1900	17,655	2,565	19,420	[2] 156	[1] 227
1910	14,283	3,865	18,148	[2] 2,572	[1] 1,300
1920	13,418	3,822	17,240	[2] 1,856	[2] 43
1930	10,688	3,694	14,462	[2] 1,750	[2] 28
1932	10,660	3,778	14,438	[2] 217	[2] 16
1934	10,289	3,890	14,269	[2] 301	[1] 202
1935	8,377	9,370	17,747	[2] 203	[1] 533
1936	9,430	3,753	13,183	[2] 839	[2] 227
1937	8,633	3,370	12,348	[2] 793	[2] 38
1938	8,280	3,621	11,650	[2] 1,150	[2] 383
1939	8,320	3,715	11,943	[1] 41	[1] 251
1940	8,300	3,687	12,026	[1] 78	[2] 34
Number loss, 9,787.					
Percent loss, 58.					

POPULATION TREND IN REPUBLIC COUNTY

1870	1,262		1,282		
1880	12,998	312	13,310	[1] 11,716	[1] 312
1890	13,504	3,346	16,852	[1] 506	[1] 3.036
1900	13,639	3,779	17,481	[1] 136	[1] 431
1910	12,127	4,363	16,490	[2] 1,512	[1] 584
1920	10,647	5,110	15,470	[2] 1,480	[1] 460
1930	10,064	5,110	15,216	[2] 583	[1] 287
1932	9,942	5,274	15,225	[2] 562	[2] 117
1934	9,815	5,410	15,091	[2] 127	[1] 136
1935	8,633	5,458	15,057	[2] 184	[1] 75
1936	9,524	5,533	15,944	[2] 291	[1] 123
1937	9,163	5,881	14,615	[2] 361	[1] 247
1938	8,065	5,650	13,331	[2] 559	[1] 117
1939	8,349	4,972	13,103	[2] 606	[2] 567
1940	8,152	4,911	13,103	[2] 167	[2] 61
Number loss, 6,619.					
Percent loss, 47.					

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[1] Increase.
[2] Decrease.

TESTIMONY OF DONALD KROTTY, OF OMAHA, NEBR.

The Chairman. Mr. Krotty, state your name and address to the reporter for the record, please.

Mr. Krotty. Donald Krotty, 211 North Eighteenth, Omaha, Nebr.

Mr. Parsons. Where were you born, Mr. Krotty?

Mr. Krotty. Norfolk, Nebr.

Mr. Parsons. How much education have you had?

Mr. Krotty. High school.

Mr. Parsons. When did you graduate?

Mr. Krotty. In 1936.

Mr. Parsons. What did you do after you left school?

Mr. Krotty. I looked for a job for about 6 months and then joined the Army.

Mr. Parsons. How long were you in the Army?

Mr. Krotty. Three years.

Mr. Parsons. Where were you stationed?

Mr. Krotty. Fort Omaha, Nebr.

Mr. Parsons. When were you discharged?

Mr. Krotty. The last day of December 1939.

Mr. Parsons. Last year?

Mr. Krotty. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. Did you try to reenlist?

Mr. Krotty. It is impossible, sir. I was married and they wouldn't let me.

Mr. Parsons. You married while you were in the Army?

Mr. Krotty. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. Have any children?

Mr. Krotty. Two.

Mr. Parsons. How old are they?

Mr. Krotty. One is about 2 years 4 months, and the other is about 3 months.

Mr. Parsons. Where did you go after you left the Army?

Mr. Krotty. To Houston, Tex.

Mr. Parsons. Why did you go to Houston?

Mr. Krotty. I heard that there was work down there, so I went down to see.

Mr. Parsons. The same old story?

Mr. Krotty. The same old story.

Mr. Parsons. Did you save any money while you were in the Army?

Mr. Krotty. I had about $140 when I started to Houston.

Mr. Parsons. Did you take your wife and children with you?

Mr. Krotty. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. Where did they stay while you were in the service?

Mr. Krotty. My wife worked part of the time and lived outside the post, and I did, too.

Mr. Parsons. You lived outside the post, too?

Mr. Krotty. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. Did you get an allowance from the Army for living outside the post?

Mr. Krotty. Well, I got half rations. I was cooking in the kitchen, and they wouldn't give me full rations.

Mr. Parsons. Did you find any work in Houston?

Mr. Krotty. Yes; I worked for a while selling vacuum cleaners.

Mr. Parsons. How much did you make a week doing that?

Mr. Krotty. I wasn't much of a salesman.

Mr. Parsons. Well, about how much did you make a week?

Mr. Krotty. About $2.

Mr. Parsons. That was $2 net above expenses?

Mr. Krotty. No; it wasn't; I sold one cleaner.

Mr. Parsons. How long were you selling one cleaner?

Mr. Krotty. Five weeks.

Mr. Parsons. How did you exist during that time?

Mr. Krotty. Well, I had enough to keep me for a couple of months when I got there, and I worked in a cafe for 5 weeks, about 6 weeks, I mean, and got a dollar and a half and my meals.

Mr. Parsons. A day?

Mr. Krotty. A day.

Mr. Parsons. What happened to that job?

Mr. Krotty. Well, the first 2 weeks I got my pay all right, and I had worked 12 days, and I received my pay for it, and that was the last half of the month, and the first 2 weeks of the next month I received my pay all right, but the last 2 weeks I worked 15 days, and I received pay for 12 days, and I asked the boss about it, and he said that was the way he paid all his help, and I couldn't do anything about it. I told him my expenses went on whether he paid me or not, and he said he could get somebody to do it for less money, and one fellow wanted to do it for his meals, and he let me go.

Mr. Parsons. What did you do then?

Mr. Krotty. I received aid from the Travelers' Aid.

Mr. Parsons. In Houston?

Mr. Krotty. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. How much did you draw per week?

Mr. Krotty. Seven and a half dollars.

Mr. Parsons. How long did you stay in Houston?

Mr. Krotty. About six and a half months, altogether.

Mr. Parsons. Oh, you haven't been back in Nebraska until right recently?

Mr. Krotty. About 7 weeks.

Mr. Parsons. Where are you living here now? Who is helping you?

Mr. Krotty. I have a job now.

Mr. Parsons. You have a job now?

Mr. Krotty. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. What are you doing now?

Mr. Krotty. Porter at the Burlington Bus Depot.

Mr. Parsons. What does that pay you per week?

Mr. Krotty. $12.60.

Mr. Parsons. About $50 a month?

Mr. Krotty. It runs about $55 a month.

SETTLEMENT DIFFICULTIES

Mr. Parsons. Did you have any difficulty about establishing residence, settlement residence, in Texas?

Mr. Krotty. I couldn't establish a residence.

Mr. Parsons. Oh, you didn't draw any public relief there, except from the Travelers' Aid?

Mr. Krotty. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. Did you attempt to get relief from public funds there?

Mr. Krotty. Yes, sir, when I lost this job I went down and tried to get on, and they sent me to the Travelers' Aid.

Mr. Parsons. Do you consider yourself a legal resident of Nebraska now?

Mr. Krotty. Well, I don't know. I am a legal resident of some place, but they have never decided where.

Mr. Parsons. Do you know whether the State of Texas asked Nebraska for authorization to send you back here?

Mr. Krotty. They did; for about 3 months they tried to get authorization.

Mr. Parsons. Did Nebraska then authorize it?

Mr. Krotty. They answered the letter, but they had an argument between Norfolk and Omaha. Neither one would claim responsibility. They both tried to pass it on to the other one.

Mr. Parsons. In two separate counties?

Mr. Krotty. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. So this question, then, of settlement, is not only between States' lines, but between counties in Nebraska, too?

Mr. Krotty. They agree that I am a resident of Nebraska—I was.

Mr. Parsons. But the counties can't determine which county?

Mr. Krotty. They wouldn't decide where I belong.

Mr. Parsons. I see. So, if you were requesting relief and entirely destitute and starving, still you couldn't get anything in Nebraska?

Mr. Krotty. I guess that is right.

Mr. Parsons. There would still be a fuss and a fight between the two counties?

Mr. Krotty. That is right.

Mr. Parsons. So, when you couldn't get any authorization from Nebraska to send you back, what happened? How did you get back here?

Mr. Krotty. Well, they told me I could either stay there and they would stop helping me, and I would be on my own, or they would send my wife back and I could get back the best way I could.

Mr. Parsons. Did they send your wife and your children back?

Mr. Krotty. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. They paid their way?

Mr. Krotty. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. Who paid their way?

Mr. Krotty. The Travelers' Aid.

Mr. Parsons. But they wouldn't pay for you?

Mr. Krotty. Well, you see, if we had authorization, they could get a half fare on the railroad and we could both go back, but they didn't get it, so we had to pay full fare, and they would only pay one.

Mr. Parsons. So that brought up the question quite impressively of our settlement laws? You haven't ever been taught anything about settlement laws before, have you?

Mr. Krotty. Well, I had been told about them in the Army, and I didn't know exactly where I was a resident. I intended, wherever I figured to settle, I'd be a resident, but they don't seem to figure that way.

Mr. Parsons. Did you apply for relief when you first came back to Omaha?

Mr. Krotty. Yes; they helped us for 3 weeks.

Mr. Parsons. In what way?

Mr. Krotty. With food stamps and an apartment to live in.

Mr. Parsons. Do they have a shelter?

Mr. Krotty. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. At Omaha?

Mr. Krotty. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. That is paid for by the State, or the local relief?

Mr. Krotty. I don't know; it is Douglas County assistance, I believe.

Mr. Parsons. Are you receiving any grocery orders or any aid or assistance of any kind now?

Mr. Krotty. No, sir.

Mr. Parsons. You are living in a rented home in Omaha?

Mr. Krotty. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. Is your wife working?

Mr. Krotty. No; she is up home in Norfolk with my folks.

Mr. Parsons. She is staying with your people back in Norfolk?

Mr. Krotty. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. What are your future plans?

Mr. Krotty. Well, I am getting a little money ahead so we can get some clothes, and then she is coming back to Omaha in 2 months.

Mr. Parsons. Do you think you could make it down there on that $50 a month?

Mr. Krotty. I think I can get by.

Mr. Parsons. Will that job be permanent?

Mr. Krotty. I hope there will be a chance for advancement.

Mr. Parsons. I hope so, too. Thank you very much.

Chairman Tolan. Mr. and Mrs. Shockley.

TESTIMONY OF MR. AND MRS. C. MARVIN SHOCKLEY

The Chairman. You are C. Marvin Shockley?

Mr. Shockley. Yes, sir.

The Chairman. You are his wife?

Mrs. Shockley. Yes, sir.

The Chairman. Where do you live?

Mr. Shockley. Well, my home is in Oklahoma City, where I was a resident.

The Chairman. You are just trying to find out now where you do live?

Mr. Shockley. Yes, sir.

The Chairman. And where are you actually living now?

Mr. Shockley. Well, I left Colorado to come here. I am just in a cottage here, a tourist camp.

The Chairman. And what is your occupation?

Mr. Shockley. Laborer.

The Chairman. Are you working now?

Mr. Shockley. No, sir.

The Chairman. What are you living on?

Mr. Shockley. Well, I have been working in the fruit orchards back in Colorado.

The Chairman. How far did you go through school?

Mr. Shockley. I completed the 11th.

The CHAIRMAN. What about you, Mrs. Shockley?

Mrs. SHOCKLEY. I completed the 9th.

The CHAIRMAN. Your old man was two grades ahead of you, is that right?

Mrs. SHOCKLEY. That is right.

The CHAIRMAN. Tell me something about your family background, Mr. Shockley.

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Well, sir, my grandfather, he came from Georgia, to make the run in Oklahoma, and he got a small homestead.

The CHAIRMAN. You mean, "to make the run," that was when the public land was opened up there?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Yes, sir.

The CHAIRMAN. What year was that?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Oh——

The CHAIRMAN (interposing). Before your time, anyway, wasn't it?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Well, pretty near it, anyway.

The CHAIRMAN. What kind of life did your grandfather make, did you ever hear?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Oh, I heard something about it, just kind of—oh, I I don't know.

The CHAIRMAN. Well, did he settle in Oklahoma?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Yes, sir.

The CHAIRMAN. Who was your grandfather?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Thomas G. Shockley.

The CHAIRMAN. He was a Confederate soldier, wasn't he?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Yes, sir.

The CHAIRMAN. Officer?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. No; he was in the Cavalry.

The CHAIRMAN. Then tell me about your father.

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Well, my father—they all lived on the farm, he told me, up until the boys were all up around—oh, I think the oldest was 8 or 9; he is 25 now, and I think it was 80 acres, or 100 with the pastures and all, so the farm got so small my father and some of his brothers just rented places around close in that county, and my father farmed for a few years, and it just seemed to keep getting worse, and times seemed to be getting harder or something.

The CHAIRMAN. Where was that?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Lexington, Cleveland County.

The CHAIRMAN. Now, your father belonged to a large family, did he not?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Eight sons. My grandfather had eight sons.

The CHAIRMAN. And how many in your family?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Five boys living.

The CHAIRMAN. When did you leave Oklahoma?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. The 1st of June, this year.

The CHAIRMAN. And where did you go from Oklahoma?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. To Grand Junction, Colo.

The CHAIRMAN. What did you do there?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. About the first 3 days I was there I worked with a plumber, and then I worked in the cherries, my wife and I, about 2 weeks, and then right after that the shops, about 3 days there.

The CHAIRMAN. How long have you been married?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Let's see—4 years.

The Chairman. And you were born in Kansas City, weren't you?

Mr. Shockley. No; she was.

The Chairman. Your wife was? Did you come from a farming family, Mrs. Shockley?

Mrs. Shockley. Yes; way back there.

The Chairman. What?

Mrs. Shockley. Not recently.

The Chairman. What did your parents do?

Mrs. Shockley. Oh, just about anything they could get.

The Chairman. Now, after you were married, you worked at the Wilson Packing Plant, didn't you?

Mr. Shockley. Yes.

The Chairman. Was the plant very far from your home?

Mr. Shockley. Well, it was—well, I worked in a packing town about 5 miles across the river.

The Chairman. How did you get there?

Mr. Shockley. I rode a bicycle.

The Chairman. How much work did you get there?

Mr. Shockley. I got about 2 months out of about 2 years, of extra work.

The Chairman. How much did you receive from this?

Mr. Shockley. Well, I made 45 cents an hour, most of the time.

The Chairman. Two months out of 2 years?

Mr. Shockley. Yes.

The Chairman. How did you manage to get along with so little money?

Mr. Shockley. Well, my mother was living with me, and she was working in the Recreation Center in Oklahoma City.

The Chairman. Why did you leave home?

Mr. Shockley. Well, sir, my mother was married again, so I just decided to leave.

The Chairman. Tell us briefly about some of your experiences in the vegetable field.

Mr. Shockley. Well, sir, there are just about a couple of weeks of each, and then there are about 2 or 3 weeks between each, most places, and sometimes longer.

The Chairman. You are referring now to Colorado?

Mr. Shockley. Yes.

The Chairman. How did you get there?

Mr. Shockley. I had an old 1932 Plymouth, and we drove through.

The Chairman. Have you got it yet?

Mr. Shockley. Well, I have another one just about like it. I don't have the same car.

The Chairman. Will it run?

Mr. Shockley. Yes, sir.

The Chairman. You and your wife worked in the cherry orchards there?

Mr. Shockley. Yes, sir.

The Chairman. How much money did you receive?

Mr. Shockley. Well, to be exact, we got 18 cents a box, and the boxes each weighed 30 pounds, and it would crowd you to pick 9 a day. We would average about $2 if we worked real hard.

The Chairman. One dollar each?

Mr. Shockley. No; $2 each.

The CHAIRMAN. Well, where did you live just before you left Colorado to come down here?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. We had a tent and we camped out on the banks of the Colorado River, between the small town or village between Grand Junction and Palisades, where most of the work is.

The CHAIRMAN. It was your tent, was it?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Yes, sir.

The CHAIRMAN. How long were you there?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. We had been there ever since we got out there, in the same place, just on the edge of town or somewhere like that.

The CHAIRMAN. How did you live—obtain groceries and so on?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Oh, we just managed to get by, is all.

The CHAIRMAN. Where are you going now? What are your plans?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Well, I don't know. I kind of figured on maybe dropping back around and seeing our mother, and going back out there again and working in the apples later this fall.

The CHAIRMAN. Don't you think it would be a good idea, Marvin, if the Government would have some offices where you could obtain information regarding employment, instead of this hit-and-miss proposition?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Yes, sir; I sure do.

The CHAIRMAN. In other words, you get a lot of misinformation now?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Yes, sir. You just hear things and go in and there is nothing to it.

The CHAIRMAN. I don't know of any State agency or Federal agency that gives any information.

Mr. SHOCKLEY. I don't know of any.

The CHAIRMAN. I know we do have some private employment agencies that take some of the last pennies of the migrants and shoot them across State lines, and we attend to these fellows. That is in interstate commerce, you know, and we have jurisdiction over that. There isn't any question but that that might be one of the recommendations; that is, for the Federal Government to see at least that you people traveling from State to State get correct information.

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Yes.

The CHAIRMAN. Are you on relief, or have you ever been on relief?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. Never have been.

The CHAIRMAN. You don't want to go on relief, do you?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. No, sir.

The CHAIRMAN. You have no children, have you?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. No, sir.

The CHAIRMAN. Have you anything else to suggest, or you, Mrs. Shockley, to help this committee?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. No.

The CHAIRMAN. In crossing State lines, have you had any trouble at all about them sending you back to the State you came from?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. No; sir. They just gave us a visitor's tag out at Grand Junction; after we were there awhile they stopped me and told me I would have to get a Colorado license.

The CHAIRMAN. Did I understand you to say you are living in a tent now?

Mr. SHOCKLEY. We were when we left; we are just living in the car now.

The CHAIRMAN. Thank you very much, Mr. Shockley.

TESTIMONY OF JOHN H. GUBSER, OF SCOTTSBLUFF, NEBR.

Mr. Parsons. State your name and address, please.

Mr. Gubser. John H. Gubser, Scottsbluff, Nebr.

Mr. Parsons. You are living at present in Scottsbluff?

Mr. Gubser. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. How old are you?

Mr. Gubser. Thirty-five.

Mr. Parsons. Are you married?

Mr. Gubser. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. Any children?

Mr. Gubser. No.

Mr. Parsons. Have you lived in Scottsbluff all your life?

Mr. Gubser. No; I have been there 2 weeks. I was there 15 years ago for 4 years; I went there in 1922.

Mr. Parsons. What are you doing now at Scottsbluff?

Mr. Gubser. Waiting for a compensation check.

Mr. Parsons. Unemployment compensation?

Mr. Gubser. Unemployment compensation, yes; and I am looking for work.

Mr. Parsons. Where had you been working to become entitled to that?

Mr. Gubser. I was employed by the Lincoln Telephone & Telegraph Co. here in Lincoln for 13 years.

Mr. Parsons. And did you quit the company here, or did they fire you?

Mr. Gubser. I resigned this year.

Mr. Parsons. What were they paying you per month?

Mr. Gubser. My rate was—day rate—since the 1st of January 1940 was $6.50 a day.

Mr. Parsons. Why did you quit?

Mr. Gubser. Well, that is a long story.

Mr. Parsons. Did you have some altercation or argument with the management or something?

Mr. Gubser. No; I was transferred to a particular foreman, 3 years ago, and he has had a lot of trouble. I happen to be the sixth man that has left the employ of the company in the last 3 years, under his supervision.

Mr. Parsons. Where did you go after you resigned?

Mr. Gubser. I went to Denver.

Mr. Parsons. Did your wife go with you?

Mr. Gubser. Well, I was out there 3 weeks before she came out.

Mr. Parsons. Why did you go to Denver?

Mr. Gubser. Well, working conditions are better; wages are better. You know, here in Nebraska, we are tied with Tennessee for the low average wage in the United States.

Mr. Parsons. You were getting $6.50 a day with the Lincoln Telephone Co. here?

Mr. Gubser. That is right.

Mr. Parsons. Is that on the basis of 30 days per month or on the basis of 26 working days per month?

Mr. Gubser. That is 26. Of course, there are lots of months, take in the wintertime, that maybe we work 15 days. It depends on the weather conditions. In 1932, of course, we worked, I think, about 40 days a month during that storm period.

Mr. PARSONS. You worked day and night?

Mr. GUBSER. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. Did you get extra pay?

Mr. GUBSER. Yes, of course; time and a half.

Mr. PARSONS. You were in the construction end of it, I assume?

Mr. GUBSER. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. Or maintenance. Did you get any employment in Denver?

Mr. GUBSER. Yes, I worked 4 days in a restaurant there, for a man that wanted to take a little time off.

Mr. PARSONS. You didn't get into any electrical construction work at that time?

Mr. GUBSER. None.

Mr. PARSONS. Are you a lineman?

Mr. GUBSER. Well, I profess to be. I should be; I spent the best part of my life at it.

Mr. PARSONS. How long did you remain in Denver?

Mr. GUBSER. I was there a month—5 weeks, I believe.

Mr. PARSONS. Didn't you get any work except the 4 or 5 days?

Mr. GUBSER. No.

Mr. PARSONS. Where did you go from there?

Mr. GUBSER. St. Joe, Mo.

Mr. PARSONS. You thought you would get some employment there?

Mr. GUBSER. Well, I hoped to. My wife has a sister there, and she was a little disappointed with Colorado, and so to sort of console her, I went down there. I was down there a year ago, and there was some R. E. A. construction.

Mr. PARSONS. Did you get work there?

Mr. GUBSER. Most of it seems to be completed now. There is some out here about 20 miles outside of Scottsbluff, but that is about completed, too.

Mr. PARSONS. When and where did you file for your unemployment compensation?

Mr. GUBSER. Well, I believe it was about the 26th or 27th of June, in Denver.

Mr. PARSONS. Soon after you resigned here?

Mr. GUBSER. Well, about 3 weeks afterwards.

Mr. PARSONS. That was in June. Have you received any checks yet?

Mr. GUBSER. None. My understanding is that I will draw one next week.

Mr. PARSONS. What are you doing now?

Mr. GUBSER. I am looking for work. I have a job promised me the 1st of October.

Mr. PARSONS. At Scottsbluff?

Mr. GUBSER. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. Are you getting any relief, or aid, or assistance out there?

Mr. GUBSER. No, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. Did you have any money saved up to tide you over this period?

Mr. GUBSER. I have a little. You don't save a whole lot when you are traveling. A lot of people think that six and a half dollars a day is big wages, but when you are away from home 4 or 5 nights a week and stay in a hotel—and a man that works hard, you know, has to eat. You can't live on these 25-cent plate lunches. It costs you something to eat when you are away from home.

Mr. PARSONS. More than it does at home?

Mr. GUBSER. Oh, yes.

Mr. PARSONS. Why has it been so long since you resigned that you haven't received these compensation checks? What has been the trouble?

Mr. GUBSER. Well, due to the fact that I resigned, I would be disqualified for, I believe 5 weeks, but along with that I could never draw any compensation as long as I was out of the State of Nebraska, unless I was living close to a border office, where I could report to that State of Nebraska Unemployment Office every week.

Mr. PARSONS. Are you reporting now?

Mr. GUBSER. Yes, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. And that, you think, will qualify you, that you will be able to start drawing soon?

Mr. GUBSER. That is my understanding from the compensation office here and in Scottsbluff.

Mr. PARSONS. Did you want to come back to Nebraska?

Mr. GUBSER. Well, not particularly, because I know what conditions are here. I have lived in this farming community around Lincoln all my life, and I was born on a farm.

Mr. PARSONS. Do you think the employment possibilities here are as good as they are in other places, or do you still have hopes that there is better employment in other cities?

Mr. GUBSER. Well, I know the situation here in Lincoln; and it's terrible.

Mr. PARSONS. What kind of job do you mention—you said you have a job October 1.

Mr. GUBSER. It's sort of a machine job, machinist job, that I had years ago when I worked for this Great Western Sugar Co.

Mr. PARSONS. This unemployment compensation law rather helps out if one gets it, doesn't it?

Mr. GUBSER. It would be quite a bit of help to me at this time.

Mr. PARSONS. What are your future plans?

Mr. GUBSER. Well, this job in Scottsbluff is probably a 3 months' proposition, and if this Nebraska National Guard is called out, I may get work up there at Scottsbluff at the telephone company. They have two men quitting, who will be called to service.

Mr. PARSONS. That is all, Mr. Chairman.

The CHAIRMAN. The committee will be recessed for 5 minutes.

(Thereupon a short recess was taken, at the conclusion of which the proceedings were resumed as follows:)

The CHAIRMAN. The committee will please come to order. Mr. Aicher, will you please take the stand?

PANEL TESTIMONY OF E. H. AICHER, OF LINCOLN, NEBR., CHIEF OF THE INSTITUTIONAL ADJUSTMENTS DIVISION, SOIL CONSERVATION SERVICE, DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE; WILLKIE COLLINS, JR., OF LINCOLN, NEBR., ASSISTANT REGIONAL AGRONOMIST, SOIL CONSERVATION SERVICE; AND H. E. ENGSTROM, OF LINCOLN, NEBR., STATE COORDINATOR OF THE SOIL CONSERVATION SERVICE FOR NEBRASKA, LINCOLN, NEBR.

The CHAIRMAN. Congressman Curtis will interrogate you?

Mr. AICHER. There is another gentleman, Mr. Collins, with me in this panel.

Mr. CURTIS. Mr. Aicher, you will give your full name, address, and title to the reporter, please.

Mr. AICHER. E. H. Aicher, Lincoln, Nebr.; Chief of the Institutional Adjustments Division of the Soil Conservation Service, Department of Agriculture, Regional Office, Lincoln, Nebr.

Mr. CURTIS. And Mr. Collins, you will do likewise.

Mr. COLLINS. Willkie Collins, Jr., assistant regional agronomist, with the Soil Conservation Service, Lincoln, Nebr.

Mr. CURTIS. I am going to consider you two as members of a panel. I will ask questions and either of you may answer, or both of you. You have submitted statement on the rural-population movement in the Great Plains region. We have read that and made it a part of our record, and it will be considered when the committee makes its final report.

(The matter referred to follows:)

STATEMENT BY E. H. AICHER, CHIEF, INSTITUTIONAL ADJUSTMENTS DIVISION, SOIL CONSERVATION SERVICE, LINCOLN, NEBR., ON RURAL POPULATION MOVEMENT IN THE NORTHERN GREAT PLAINS

I. INSTABILITY OF RURAL POPULATION A PROBLEM OF NATIONAL CONCERN

The increased movement of rural population during the past decade has been such as to create serious social and economic problems. These problems and their underlying causes extend beyond county and State boundaries. Such significant population movements as have occurred during the past decade become a matter of concern of the National Government.

A. Factors contributing to the problem of instability and movement of rural population in and from the Northern Great Plains States:

Like most chronic disorders the roots of this problem are deep seated. The family movement of recent years can perhaps best be discussed in terms of the factors which have contributed to the uprooting and subsequent movement of these farm families.

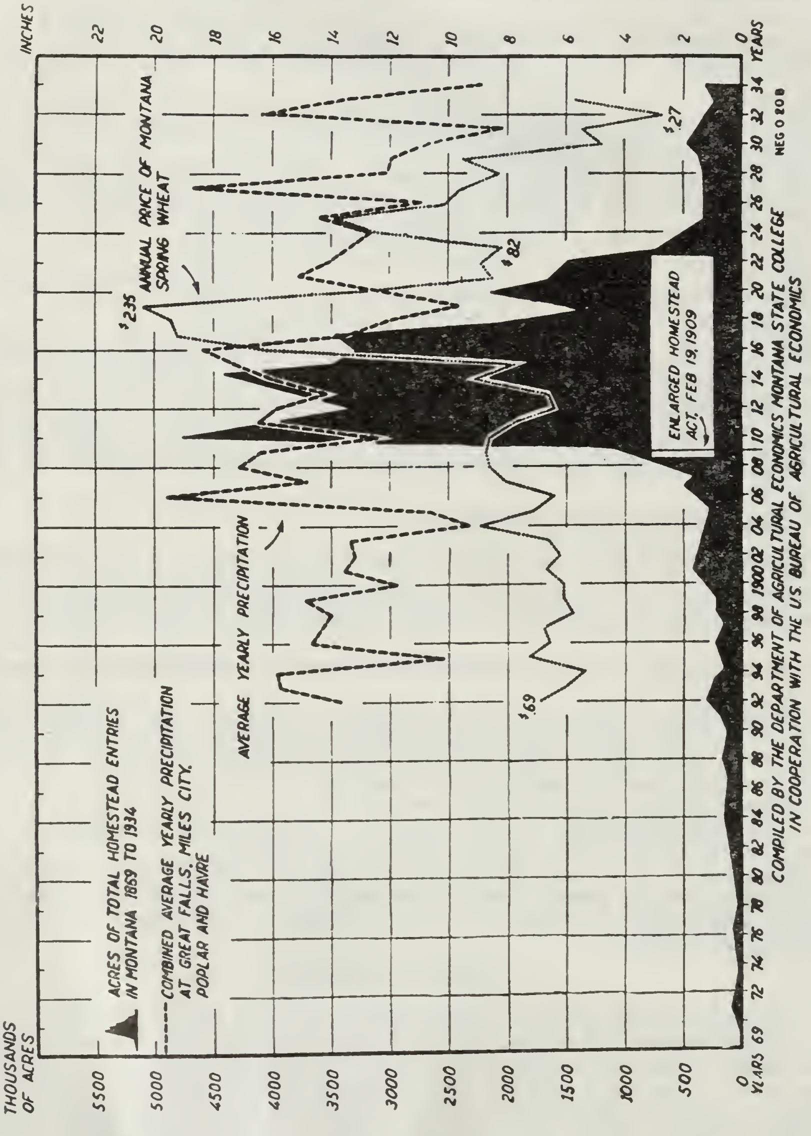
1. SOILS AND CLIMATE

A necessary preface to the factors enumerated below is an appreciation of the fact that the soils and climate of the Northern Great Plains States have wide variability, ranging from highly productive loams to barren badland buttes and from areas of normally sufficient, favorably distributed rainfall to areas of very limited and erratic precipitation. These physical factors therefore are especially significant in any given area within the Northern Great Plains. They are basic factors of consideration in determining the use capability of a particular area.

2. METHOD OF SETTLEMENT

In view of the above physical factors, the methods under which large portions of the Great Plaints States were settled constitute one of the primary causes for the instability among the rural population which followed closely upon the heels of actual settlement.

The Federal homestead laws under which most of the Great Plains States passed from public to private ownership did not recognize the physical limitations of the areas opened to homesteading with the result that a pattern of small-sized, uneconomic agricultural units were established which even yet are one of the chief causes of instability among the farm population in all except the eastern portions of Nebraska and the Dakotas. See figure 1, which shows how extensive homesteading occurred in Montana as a result of the enlarged Homestead Act, coinciding with favorable climatic conditions and higher prices for wheat.



The effects of the ill-adapted homestead laws were augmented by the promotional schemes of the States, the railroads, real-estate companies, and local community boosters to secure settlers. The State supported land departments, which gave wide publicity to the agricultural opportunities awaiting the settler who was fortunate enough to choose that particular State as a future home. They sponsored colonization ventures and other promotional schemes to secure settlers. The railroads, seeking increased business and disposal of grant lands, were equally active in promoting settlement. Free transportation as guests of the company, with conducted tours during which prospective settlers were shown "bait" farms developed far beyond what could be duplicated under ordinary farming conditions, was a frequently employed method of securing settlers.

The land company, operating on a large scale, financed by eastern capital, was responsible for thousands of settlers. Their operations were extensive and commonly "high pressure." Inducements used to interest people in going into a new country and taking up or buying land included extravagant posters and printed material scattered broadcast through the mails; exhibition trains decked with banners and loaded with fruits, vegetables, and grains impossible to duplicate under ordinary farming conditions; home-seekers' excursions; elaborate exhibitions and professional lectures; and virtual promises of quick and easy riches.[1] They acquired large tracts of land and subdivided them into many small tracts which were "peddled" to families seeking new locations. They offered the homeseeker anything from a raw quarter to a ready-made farm, complete with buildings, well, and fences.

Local civic organizations and "booster" clubs added their invitations to the prospective settler, by calling his attention to the fine opportunities that existed within their respective trade territories.

It is to be expected that the impetus given to settlement by these agencies together with free land would result in a tremendous influx of settlers, a rather high percentage of which were untrained in agricultural pursuits. The unemployed from the industrial East, the speculator, the misfits and failures from more stabilized agricultural areas were intermingled with the competent, bona fide agricultural homeseekers.

It was inevitable that the communities established upon such an unstable basis must undergo an adjustment period—a period during which the pattern of occupancy and use so rapidly introduced was brought into alinement with the physical factors characteristic of that particular area.

3. OVERCAPITALIZATION

Coincident with the settlement of communities was the need for operating funds by the settlers. The favorable conditions which prevailed during the period when much of the Great Plains area was settled led to an overoptimistic attitude with the result that highly inflated values were placed upon real estate. This movement culminated with the real estate boom which swept the country during the period 1916 to 1921. Real estate prices soared far beyond long-term productive values. Credit was available from many sources and loans made on the prevailing inflated values were often far in excess of the actual productive worth of the land. The evaluation methods used by Federal and State agencies and by local county commissioners were such as to prompt overcapitalization as were those used by private lending agencies. Speculation in real estate was widespread and was another factor which contributed heavily to the inflation of real-estate prices.

4. OVEREXPANSION OF PUBLIC FACILITIES

The new settlers brought with them the cultural patterns of the localities from which they migrated and these patterns were established in the new communities which in most instances were radically different from the areas from which the patterns were adopted. The township unit of government, the small one-school, school districts often embracing less than a township in area, the township assessment system and many others equally unsuited were borrowed from areas where soil and climatic conditions were such as to support a rather heavy population on small farms. These cultural patterns applied to the greater portion of the

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[1] State Land Settlement Problems and Policies, W. A. Hartman, U. S. Department of Agriculture Technical Bulletin No. 357, May 1933.

Great Plains States where conditions of soil and climate were so materially different introduced a maladjustment which still exists.

The influx of settlers on small farms created a need for school facilities and school district boards anticipating still further increases in the population planned and built school facilities to accommodate an expanding population. Road facilities were likewise extended to serve the new communties. These in many instances were expanded beyond the needs of the present population and beyond the ability of the area to support them. Public services, supported by local taxes, were likewise expanded in keeping with the spirit of expansion and growth which prevailed in the communities. New courthouses, fair grounds, consolidated schools and transportation of pupils, enumerate but a few examples of the expansion of public services.

5. EXPANSION OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE CREDIT

The expansion of public facilities was made possible to a large extent by the overcapitalization of values and the extension of credit facilities to the many units of local government. The tax bases of these units had been so inflated by overcapitalization that credit was easy to obtain. Little difficulty was experienced in securing the favorable vote required for the floating of bond issues which would not become due until 20 years in the future. Based on the inflated tax base, the levies required to build up a sinking fund for the retirement of these bonds seemed comparatively modest. Bonds of counties, school districts, and towns totaling millions of dollars were issued for capital improvements.

During the period of general expansion budgets in many instances, if made at all, were not strictly adhered to. If funds for current operations were not immediately available, warrants were drawn upon the proper fund and registered thereby becoming eligible for 6-percent interest from date of registration to date of payment. These warrants were commonly alleged to acculate until the amount became excessive when they were funded by issuing bonds sufficient to call the outstanding warrants plus accumulated interest.

This deficit financing of current operations plus the debts incurred for capital improvements was sufficient to mortgage the future of many communities for generations. The deflation of values to more nearly normal levels has left many taxing units staggering under tremendous debt burdens. In one school district outstanding debt amounts to over 50 percent of present assessed valuation. In another, because of the extreme tax levies necessary for debt service, the taxes were paid on only 11 of the 113 assessed tracts of agricultural real estate. The total tax levy in this district for 1937 was $92.75 per $1,000 taxable valuation, of which $50 was for debt service. Fixed charges, generally, were excessive and prevented a reduction in tax levies. Chronic tax delinquency and widespread tax deed action by the counties which displaced hundreds of farm families were the inevitable results of the fiscal policies of local governments during the 20-year period preceding 1930. This factor is especially significant in the western Dakotas and eastern Montana, where millions of acres have been taken by the counties because of unpaid taxes.

The situation with respect to public debt can, in many respects, be duplicated in the field of private debt, which has even more significance as a factor of family instability. The early settler's needs for operating funds were for a considerable period met by the commercial banks and real-estate lending agencies. The generally favorable price levels from 1910 to 1930, favorable climatic conditions, and the introduction of power machinery offered a tremendous inducement for farm operators to expand their operations and to go into debt. Their homesteads were often mortgaged to make a down payment on another piece of land or more equipment. Accompanying this combination of factors favorable to agricultural operations, there was a general fever on the part of lending agencies to make real-estate loans. All had money to lend and were anxious to get it out at the favorable interest rates. Commercial banks, loan companies, and insurance companies dominated the agricultural-credit field until about 1916. Partially to offset the high interest rates and short-term loans of the private lending agencies, and to provide more liberal credit than was available from the Federal land banks, and partially to encourage further settlement, four of the five Northern Great Plains States established State lending agencies. South Dakota established the rural credit department in 1917; North Dakota established the Bank of North Dakota and the State land commission, empowering both to make loans on farm property in North Dakota. Permanent school funds were made available for farm loans in South Dakota, loans being placed by the county commissioners. Montana and

Wyoming each had State credit agencies making real-estate loans. The lending policies of these State agencies did much to stimulate excessive borrowing which later resulted in thousands of farm families losing their homes through foreclosure. Very few of the original loans continue in good standing at the present time. Most of the State agencies lending activities were short-lived, being generally discontinued about 1925.

The Farm Credit Administration through the Federal Reserve banks made numerous loans during this period, but their early loans were largely confined to the older agricultural areas in the central and eastern parts of Nebraska and the Dakotas. Later their lending activities were extended throughout the States, with the heaviest period of lending and refinancing of old obligations being from 1933 to 1935. The valuations placed upon land by the bank and the making of principal and Commissioner's loans resulted in many instances in the aggregate loan being considerably in excess of the productive value of the land. The combined factors of excessive loans, poor crops, and poor prices placed many farmers in a position where they were unable to meet their obligations, with subsequent foreclosure by the bank.

The significant factor with respect to these credit agencies and the policies under which they operated is that they inflated prices, encouraged borrowing, stimulated expansion to the extent that literally thousands of honest, hardworking farm owners and operators were induced to borrow in excess of the amount they could service under normal conditions. With successive years of drought, crop failures, insect ravages, and low prices for agricultural products it was inevitable that wholesale foreclosures would result. Hundreds of farm families have lost their homes as a result of these foreclosures. Some of them have been able to get reestablished as tenants in the communities but many others have no doubt joined the army of migrants in search of new opportunities.

6. INTRODUCTION OF POWER MACHINERY IN AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS

Prior to about 1920 power machinery in farming operations was pretty largely limited to stationary engines and to steam engines for threshing and large-scale "land breaking" operations. The lighter tractor operating on kerosene or other cheap fuel oil revolutionized the whole agricultural system. The displacement of horse-operated machinery by power machinery made necessary larger units to permit greater use of the expensive equipment. The greatest period of expansion was from 1922 to 1929, when millions of acres of new sod were broken up for cultivation and farmers expanded their operations, often by mortgaging their farms to buy either more land or more equipment. The farm-machinery companies and agents made extremely liberal terms to further stimulate sales. It was not uncommon for $2,500 combines to be sold on the basis of the purchaser paying the freight from regional warehouse to destinations as the down payments. Speculative cash-crop farming was widespread. Nearly every community had its "main street farmers" who lived in town and directed the operations on a farm or farms operated by power machinery and hired help. This significant change in farming practice displaced many farm families from smaller family-sized units which could not compete with the tractor operator. Their units were readily absorbed by the larger operator, who could more efficiently utilize his power machinery on a larger acreage. Landowners, looking for highest cash returns, would rent to a tractor operator for cash-crop production rather than to a family on a diversified, general farming basis. This process is still in operation, and each spring finds more tenants displaced.[2] The families and single workers displaced by this shift to power equipment were to a large extent absorbed by industry prior to 1930. Since then, however, there has been a reversal of this process, and unemployed industrial workers are trying to get back on the farms. Many tenants unable to find desirable farms have sold what stock and machinery they had and tried to find some other occupation. Too often unsuccessful in this, they turn to employment as a farm laborer in the community or become migrant seasonal agricultural workers.

7. INSECURITY OF TENURE

The insecurity of tenure is not limited to the tenant farmer. The landowner of record is often little more than a hired man for the bank and machinery company, so small is his remaining equity. High fixed costs of ownership have in many instances so seriously undermined his equity during the years of poor crops that his chance of recovery is limited. The principal payments and interest charges take a high percentage of his income during normal crop years. High taxes add to the owner's burden, and it is far too often that the owner, through default on mortgage payments or taxes, loses his farm and becomes a tenant with even less security.

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[2] Farm Security Administration reports one instance of eight standard borrowers in western North Dakota being displaced by having their places leased away from them by a large-scale operator. Elsewhere it is increasingly difficult to find family-sized farms for relocation purposes.

Joining the ranks of the tenant, his tenure on any respective farm unit is threatened by absentee ownership which may require him to deal with from 2 to 30 separate owners in an effort to keep his unit intact. Their individual action with respect to their separate tracts may leave him with a badly disrupted unit or none at all. The short-term (usually annual) competitive-lease system makes it extremely easy for a cash crop tractor operator to disrupt the unit of an operator who is trying to build up a livestock unit. The immediate cash return to the owner may be higher from the tractor farmer. The general farmer who wants to use part of the land for more stable livestock operation cannot meet the excessive rent offered by the cash-crop farmer.

A factor not so significant but one which has displaced a considerable number of tenants is the moving back of the owners, once retired, onto the farm in an effort to get sufficient returns to meet fixed charges and provide a living.

The insecurity of tenure, therefore, is a constant threat to the operations of both owner-operator and tenant. This insecurity is reflected in their operations. A high degree of dependence upon annual soil-depleting crops, failure to adopt soil and moisture-conservation practices, soil "mining" and erosion, lack of feed reserves, improper care of buildings, are to a large extent directly traceable to insecurity of tenure.

8. SEVERE CLIMATIC REVERSES

"In most of the Northern Great Plains region during the period from 1900 to 1915 there was comparatively abundant moisture. For these 16 years Nebraska had an accumulation of more than 20 inches above normal rainfall, and 13 of the 16 had above normal in North Dakota."[3]

The above quotation describes a climatic condition which, with an occasional year of drought in certain areas, continued until 1925. A record of 8 weather stations throughout the 5 Northern Great Plains States shows 1925 and 1926 to be years of widespread drought. In 1927, however, all stations reported precipitation to be 25 percent or more above normal. In 1928 and 1929 there was a marked deficiency of precipitation, which introduced a succession of drought years which culminated in the extreme, devastating droughts of 1934 and 1936. Although not so extensive or so severe, the drought cycle has persisted, with some areas experiencing 6 or 7 successive years of crop failure as a result of weather conditions or insect ravages.

In some parts of the region this drought cycle must be considered as abnormal and temporary, but in the major portion of the Plains States, where the average rainfall is less than 20 inches, the long-time weather records reveal a marked tendency for a successive number of favorable years to be followed by a successive number of droughty years. Years of scanty precipitation must be expected in this major portion of the region. "However important this general deficiency in moisture may be, it is climatic variability that is the most critical factor in the permanent settlement of the Plains, since this is the basis of most of the agricultural risks of the region."[4]

The years of successive drought and the accompanying "black blizzards," or severe duststorms, that scourged sections of the Plains States drove many families from their homes. Where previously they had been able to weather 1 or perhaps 2 bad years through the extension of credit and emergency feed and seed loans, they now found their credit exhausted, their livestock gone, their farms drifting and swept into the air by the blistering hot winds. For many years it was a seemingly futile effort to fight on in the face of such overwhelming odds. They simply packed what few possessions they had left onto the car or truck and headed west. That this migration has not been entirely arrested is evidenced by the following excerpt from the Omaha World Herald for August 22, 1940:

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[3] The Climate of the Northern Great Plains, J. B. Kincer.

[4] The Future of the Great Plains—A report of the Great Plains Committee, 1936.

"KEARNEY, NEBR., August 21.—More than 50 Buffalo County farmers, hard hit from drought, appeared before the county board of supervisors today asking aid to enable them to keep livestock. They reported they were without feed and they will be forced to sell their animals if help is not forthcoming.

"Many farmers in the northern part of the county have sold out at farm sales and are moving to the West. County board members urged farmers to write to Congressmen and Senators regarding their plight and to ask Government aid."

9. TYPE OF FARMING

Another factor which contributed heavily to the instability of farm population in the Northern Great Plains and which is very closely related to the above-noted factors, is the type of farming which was established in a major portion of the Plains States. Throughout a major portion of these States the settlers introduced a system of farming largely adapted from the more humid Corn Belt areas, where annual rainfall averaged upward of 30 inches. These practices introduced into areas where annual rainfall averaged from 15 to 20 inches established a type of high-risk farming which could only prove moderately successful under favorable conditions. The system, with some modification, flourished and expanded during the rather extended period of abnormally favorable climatic conditions and with the high prices of the war period. These factors led farmers to place too much dependence upon cash crops. This shift was further stimulated by the introduction of tractor farming, and millions of acres of good grazing and pasture land were brought under cultivation as an ever-increasing number of farmers shifted from general or combination livestock and grain farming to cash-crop operations.

When the drought years came, this type of farming proved to be too flexible to take the shock. The operator's capital was tied up in power equipment, his land was plowed and too often he was solely dependent upon cash crops for his income. When these failed or prices were at levels which would not cover the cost of harvesting, as in 1932, he was forced to use up what cash resources he might have for current expenses. As these were exhausted, he turned to credit. Successive crop failures soon saddled him with a burden on debt from which he could not recover. Land and/or machinery were often lost to the mortgage holder and the once prosperous farmer was set adrift as a tenant, to seek establishment in another occupation, or as a migrant.

This type of farming, in adidtion to the inflexibility discussed above, prevented the adoption of conservation practices. The fixed costs and dependency upon cash crops forced the operator to exploit his land resources in an effort to meet his obligation. Soil-depleting crops, fields left barren by drought, and continuous row cropping stimulated erosion and soil depletion, which has rendered thousands of farms less productive and has caused the abandonment of thousands of others to the healing action of nature.

Of recent years decided emphasis has been placed by Federal, State, and local agencies upon adjusting the type of farming within a given area to the physical characteristics of that area. A permanent agriculture must be based upon a type of farming geared to the physical factors.

II. ACTIVITIES DIRECTED TOWARD STABILIZING FARM FAMILIES

A. SOIL CONSERVATION SERVICE

The Secretary of Agriculture has placed upon the Soil Conservation Service responsibility for the management of the departmental land-use programs that involve the Department's participation in operations on agricultural lands, including erosion control, submarginal land purchases and development, the agricultural phases of flood control, water facilities development, farm forestry, and drainage and irrigation.

The scope and objectives of the Soil Conservation Service have thus been greatly broadened. What was formerly an agency concerned primarily with the conservation of soil and water resources is now an agency concerned with promoting adjustments to achieve better land use, permanent systems of farming, long-time tenure, owner-operated units, and discouragement of migratory tendencies.

1. *Erosion control demonstrations.*—For the past 5 years the Soil Conservation Service has operated demonstration areas in representative agricultural regions to show the best methods of dealing with typical erosion problems. This activity

was a prelude to the formation of soil conservation districts, dealt with in another section, and the demonstration areas have been called the show windows of soil-erosion control.

Practicability is a requirement of all measures demonstrated in these special projects, so that a farmer after seeing them should be able to return to his own land and install the same measures, with minor variations and according to his needs. Farmers from the surrounding countryside have gone to these demonstration projects to inspect and study practical methods of conserving soil and water resources, and thousands have followed the procedures demonstrated.

More than 500 soil conservation demonstration areas in 45 States now constitute proving grounds for conservation measures and sources of authentic information about erosion-control practices.

Reduced to simplest terms, the basis for the work on the project is the proper planning for each unit of land. The individual farmers assist in the development of the plans for their farms.

2. *Civilian Conservation Corps.*—It became evident early in the program that, properly supervised and directed, the Civilian Conservation Corps camps afforded an opportunity to carry out soil conservation demonstrations in a large number of strategically located problem areas that could not be served with regular funds of the Bureau.

Additional technicians were placed in the camps by the Soil Conservation Service, and instructions contemplated development and fruition of complete plans of soil and water conservation on the land. Since the inauguration of the district program, the Civilian Conservation Corps camps are cooperating also with the district supervisors in this work.

Illustrative of the accomplishments of the Civilian Conservation Corps camps in demonstration work, in cooperation with Soil Conservation Service technicians, is found on what is known as section 9, a section of land in Pawnee County owned by Maude W. Warren.

Previous to 1935 the land had been in native grass but it had been so heavily grazed in 1932, 1933, and 1934 that the grass was practically grubbed out and weeds had taken over the land. The job was to restore the grass cover, stop gullies which were threatening complete destruction of the land, install soil and moisture conservation practices, and develop stock watering facilities.

Winter wheat was used as a crop for preparation of the seed bed, even though the land was not suited to crop farming. Each year a part of the land was planted to grasses until now nearly all of the section has been returned to range. Gullies have been treated and fenced, contour pasture furrows have been constructed, and a rotation grazing plan has been worked tut.

The net result is that this section of land is nearly completely restored, but equally as interesting are the figures on earnings from the land. Before 1936, the time the Civilian Conservation Corps camp started work on the demonstration project, the annual gross income ranged from $800 to $1,900 per year, the latter figure being the peak gross income. Since the instigation of the conservation program net income from the land has averaged $1,939 per year. Charged against the gross income were the expenses of mowing weeds, labor in harvesting grass seed and the cost of grass seed purchased, labor used in preparing the seedbed and seeding the land, barbed wire for the fences needed to establish a rotation pasture system, and other supplies.

Through such performances as was exemplified on this demonstration farm, the Civilian Conservation Corps and the Soil Conservation Service is pointing the way to security in tenure and a reduction in the migration problem in the agricultural areas.

3. *Soil conservation districts.*—It is recognized by all familiar with the soil and moisture conservation problems in the United States that they could never be satisfactorily solved by Federal action alone. The task is too vast and too complex to be met in its entirety by a central governmental agency. It includes remedial measures on lands in various stages of depletion, on the one hand, and preventive measures to maintain the productivity of land still in good shape.

While Federal agencies are needed to point the way toward better land use through technical advice and assistance, the initiative and actual work of conservation on a large part of the Nation's tillable land and range land must be undertaken by the farmer and rancher.

One readily realizes, however, that individual efforts at erosion control and soil and moisture conservation are likely to be ineffective, that they can be costly, and that they can never be anything but piecemeal. The one system of attack on these problems which promises success is the cooperative attack, beginning where erosion begins at the crests of ridges and working down, farm by farm and field by field, to the stream banks in the valleys below.

The soil conservation districts are units of local government authorized by State law and will speed up cooperative action. They are simply mechanisms whereby farmers and ranchers within watersheds or other natural land use areas may organize for community action and mutual protection in meeting the soil and water conservation problems. Thirty-seven of the forty-eight States have adopted laws permitting local groups of farmers to organize soil conservation districts, and it is hoped that eventually a significant part of the Nation's lands will be included in districts.

There are now 41 districts in the Northern Great Plains region. For 34 of these, which embrace 8,144,837 acres of land, memoranda of understanding have been completed between the farmers and the Soil Conservation Service. Seven others have been voted upon favorably, but final arrangements for assistance by the Service have not been completed.

With Soil Conservation Service technicians assisting the districts, the farmers will have the benefit of the coordinated application of all the proved results of tests on the demonstration projects, the State college experiment stations, the research activities of the Extension Service, and the research activities of the Soil Conservation Service.

The diversity of conditions on the Great Plains demands diversity of treatment, but the public eye at present is upon the more seriously damaged lands. In the more highly productive portions, the problem is to keep them that way, primarily through control of water and instigation of a planned, balanced system of farm operations.

In areas of serious wind erosion, there is in general an appalling impoverishment of farmers, and local public finances have been seriously disrupted. Large numbers of operators are either living on land that is unsuited for crop production, or on units too small for economic operations as stock ranches. In the more serious problem areas, restoration of the grass cover on land that will not support crops is necessary in order to conserve the soil itself.

Many homesteads have been abandoned in those areas and the land has remained idle and unprotected. As a result of the widespread farm abandonment, tax delinquency, and erosion, a confused and complicated pattern of ownership has developed. Private lands are intermingled with public domain, railroad grants, and tax-reverted lands.

Such conditions have been brought about largely by a lack of planning, both individual and community. Through the soil-conservation district, however, the farmers are able to overcome this shortcoming. They can hold group meetings, carry on educational activities, develop complete farm plans according to land-use capabilities, and put into operation tillage and land management practices. In all of this they have the assistance of Soil Conservation Service technicians.

The practices which can be instituted through the cooperative action possible in soil-conservation districts include deferred grazing, regrassing of eroded areas, contour and strip cropping, crop rotations, development of stock-water facilities. These will bring about a more permanent land use and enable readjustment of the tax base.

Through this better management of the land, incomes are increased, and we find a happy, contented, coordinated group of people, working together with an understanding of their common problems to bring about a more satisfactory environment and reduce the possibilities of migratory movements.

Illustrative of what has been accomplished through soil-conservation districts is the cooperative action in the cedar district in North Dakota. There, land management and soil and moisture-conservation practices have been installed. The district has secured the lease of county, State, and Federal lands on long terms, and farming units have been balanced through a combination of owner-operated lands and leased lands. The balance between cultivated and grassed lands has been established. Operations are on a permanent, stable basis. The farmers have been rehabilitated on the spot—no migratory problem there.

4. The land-utilization projects.—The Soil Conservation Service has 19 land-utilization projects distributed through the western parts of the Dakotas and Nebraska, and the eastern half of Montana and Wyoming. These projects, the older of which were initiated in 1934 and early 1935 under the Land Policy Section of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration, and the later ones under title III of the Bankhead-Jones Farm Tenant Act, embrace a total acreage of 21,637,856 acres and were established in areas where social and economic maladjustments

were most apparent and where distress of the farm families was most pronounced.

Their purpose was threefold: (1) To retire, through Federal purchase, submarginal crop land in these extremely high risk crop areas; (2) to provide an opportunity for stranded, drought-harassed farm families to salvage something from their unproductive units and assist them in finding locations in more suitable farming areas; and (3) to return the submarginal crop land to its best long-time use and establish a constructive range-management practice, thereby stabilizing the agriculture of the areas.

The areas selected for these projects were characterized by a complexity of maladjustments which, until corrected, definitely prevented a return to economic and social stability. Because of soil and climatic conditions they were areas of exceptionally high risk for cash-crop production—yet a major part of the population was dependent upon cash crops. They had been scourged with successive drought years and relief costs were heavy (in 1 project 412 of the 682 families were on relief). Families were destitute and levels of living had dropped to health-endangering levels. Absentee ownership, serious misuse of land, severe erosion, depletion of the range land from overstocking, mortgage debt that commonly exceeded the appraised value of the land and heavy tax delinquency because of top heavy public facilities and services were other evidences of maladjustment and contributors to the economic and social distress in these problem areas.

The principal approach to the amelioration of these maladjustments was purchase, by the Federal Government, of 4,273,098 acres of submarginal cultivated and depleted range land. The purchase was planned to bring only the poorer land into Government ownership and to permit the maximum number of families to remain in the areas on units of sufficient size and quality to provide permanent support under conservative use and management. As the purchased land came into Government ownership, a program of development in cooperation with the Works Progress Administration was initiated to improve the areas for livestock production. Those employed on this work were the men of farm families of the areas, both those who as vendors were awaiting payment for their land and those who planned to remain in the area. For a great number of families the money earned through this work enabled them to stay on their farms and retain a foundation herd of livestock, where without it, they would have been forced to move. Principal improvements made under the development program include the reseeding of thousands of acres of formerly cultivated land to adapted range grasses, the construction of stock water ponds, well and spring improvement, fencing for better control of livestock and the salvaging of buildings and fences no longer needed.

To stimulate local administration and to effect a greater degree of control of the land by the remaining operators, 46 cooperative grazing associations have been formed on most of the projects. These associations, with a membership of nearly 3,000 operators, lease the Government-owned land as well as other publicly owned land, such as State school land and county tax deed land, and much of the privately owned on a long-term basis. The degree of control exercised by the association and its members in some instances amounts to as much as 75 percent of the total area. The land controlled by the association is administered on a carrying capacity basis. The Government's interest is protected through supervisory control of stocking rates which insure conservative use. Through these associations and by individual permits on those projects where associations have not as yet been formed, the control and administration of the area have been largely restored to the local operators. Use of the Government-owned land is based upon the factors of (1) ability to provide winter feed; (2) prior use; and (3) dependency upon this land for the maintenance of an economic-sized unit. The units thus established are assured of the use of the association for Government-administered land.

The adjustments effected by the projects in these areas have brought a security of tenure to these operators which they have not heretofore enjoyed. The high percentage of absentee ownership has been greatly reduced, making it much easier for an operator to maintain and improve a livestock unit. An example can be cited in the case of Mr. J. A. Henninger[5] of near Roundup, Mont., who recently appeared on the "We, the People" radio program. In 1934, Mr. Henninger had to deal with 34 separate owners to control a livestock unit of sufficient size (10 sections) to support 100 animal units on a year-long basis. As a result of the adjustment program he now deals with 13 owners and the hazard of control has been greatly reduced.

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[5] A more detailed discussion of this adjustment is provided in "Land Policy Review"—May–June 1940.

The major dependency for income has been shifted from cash crops to livestock, thereby bringing the land into its best long-time use and adjusting the type of farming to the physical and climatic conditions. The storing of feed reserves is encouraged to offset the deficiencies of drought years. Through the enlargement of units, an adjustment in the type of farming, and security of tenure, a stability of operations, not previously enjoyed, now characterizes these land-utilization project areas.

The migration of families from these areas was noticeable long before the establishment of the projects.[6] This movement was greatly stimulated by the period of low prices, drought, and insect ravages which harassed the farmers following 1930, when many hundreds of farm families simply abandoned their former homes and migrated to other areas where they thought they would have a better chance. In many instances it was a case of "getting away from" almost unbearable conditions, rather than a movement directed toward economic advancement. Wholesale abandonment of farms was occurring both from within and without the areas later established as project areas. This movement was largely unguided, as no Federal agency existed to render this service.

With the establishment of the land-utilization projects in 1934, the migration was temporarily checked by the knowledge that the Government was going to assist those stranded farm families through purchase of their unproductive units and assist them in finding locations in areas more suitable for crop farming operations. The development program later provided a further incentive for many of these families to remain "in place" rather than blindly set out in search of something better. These two phases of the projects assisted materially in slowing down the movement from farms in the areas, thus permitting the relocation agencies of Resettlement Administration and the Farm Security Administration to get to these families and assist in their rehabilitation in their home counties or State, and if this could not be accomplished, then to assist in and guide the relocation of families from these areas. The development program through the Works Progress Administration made jobs for these people in their own communities. Wages were good and this "lifesaver" tided many of them over the readjustment period.

At the initiation of the projects, there were approximately 8,560 farm and ranch units embraced, a high percentage of which would not provide a living for a farm family. In planning the purchase activities of the projects, an effort was made to select for purchase those units which offered the least possibility of supporting a family, and those tracts which could best be utilized in enlarging other units so that the maximum number of units and families could be retained and supported under proper utilization of the resources.

There were 2,384 families reported by the various projects as residing on tracts being purchased. To assist in the relocation of these families, the facilities of the Resettlement Administration were enlisted. The program started by that agency was later transferred to the Farm Security Administration and the scope of the program enlarged. A cooperative arrangement was developed between the Soil Conservation Service and the Farm Security Administration providing a definite procedure for the handling of certain phases of the relocation work. The Farm Security Administration has, through its local field men and special relocation personnel, extended many types of relocation assistance to these former occupants of purchased tracts and to others who planned to seek new locations.

The bulk of the families who occupied purchased tracts were able to relocate without financial assistance since most of them had some equity in the land sold to the Government. Out of a total of 1,984 reported as having relocated as of June 30, 1940, there were 1,477 who relocated without financial assistance. Of those who received assistance from Farm Security Administration, 220 had been located in resettlement projects; 150 had received rehabilitation loans or grants on farms other than in resettlement projects; and 135 had received other types of Farm Security Administration assistance, such as arranging for welfare assistance, old age pensions, moving grants, etc.

There is a total of approximately 335 families still in residence upon lands accepted for purchase. Of these, 123 have been classified as being able to relocate without Farm Security Administration assistance and the remainder as needing some type of assistance.

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[6] This population movement is described in "The People of the Drouth States"—Research Bulletin, Division of Social Research, Works Progress Administration.

While complete records are not available on the relocation of all the families who occupied lands purchased, an analysis of four of the larger projects shows a larger number of relocations within the home State than outside the State. Out-of-State relocations involved many States, but there was a definite trend westward, with the Pacific coast States drawing the majority of the out-of-State locations. Most of the families relocated on farms or found employment in agricultural occupations. The remainder have made a wide range of adjustments and relocations. Some established small businesses, some found employment in their former occupations, many were eligible for old-age pensions and county welfare assistance; a few went to live with children, and some moved to town and depended upon day labor.

Insofar as possible the Farm Security Administration and its predecessor, the Resettlement Administration, have attempted to keep the families in the State or at least within the region. Where feasible, resettlement projects have been established, but many of the former occupants of purchased land did not care to move to those units. It should be remembered, too, that submarginal operators are quite often associated with submarginal land, and quite a number of these families could not or would not accept the responsibility of property managing and operating a unit capable of supporting them. For those who gave little indication of successful operation of a unit, the Farm Security Administration has provided subsistence grants or tried to get them employment.

The adjustment in the land-use project areas was primarily based upon an enlargement of units. This adjustment was taking place at the inception of the projects and would have continued had the projects not been established. The process of adjustment would have been far more costly to society and certainly more painful to the individual. In areas such as those covered by the project areas there had to be an adjustment in size of units before stability of operations could be attained. The operation of the projects assisted in this adjustment of population to resources and made the adjustment process less disruptive to the families affected and to society. For those who remain as operators within the areas, there is a stability of operations never before enjoyed; to those who chose to sell their land and seek new locations or opportunities has been extended material assistance by both the Farm Security Administration and the Soil Conservation Service.

5. *Tenant-purchase farms.*—The functions of the Soil Conservation Service in this program, which is primarily the responsibility of the Farm Security Administration, is twofold:

First, the Soil Conservation Service makes an analysis of the land to be purchased for the purpose of establishing a deserving tenant farmer on land of his own. This analysis is to determine whether the unit is capable of supporting a family. An illustration of the value of such an analysis is found in South Dakota where it was found that the amount of land in a proposed unit which could be farmed was inadequate—the rest had to remain in grass to avoid a serious wind-erosion problem.

Second, the Soil Conservation Service prepares a plan of operation for the tenant-purchaser which enables him to handle his land for productivity and permanency.

The purpose of the Soil Conservation Service in this program is to give the tenant-purchaser a fair start and to enable him to hold onto his land once he has it in his possession. Every tenant firmly established on land reduces the migration problem to that extent.

6. *Water facilities.*—This program is specifically aimed at helping to rehabilitate needy farm families. The objectives are to assist those farmers and ranchers in the improvement and development of farm and range water supplies in arid and semiarid areas to promote better use of the land, advance human welfare, and aid in rehabilitation on the spot.

The water facilities program is limited to the 17 Western States and is carried out cooperatively with the Farm Security Administration, Bureau of Agricultural Economics and other agencies, through the Water Facilities Board.

The Soil Conservation Service is directly responsible for detailed farm planning and installation of facilities: (1) In harmony with general plans developed by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, to assist farmers and ranchers to develop water supplies which will facilitate improvements in land use; (2) to prepare a plan of conservation practices for the entire farm and to assist the farmer in applying the practices to the land; (3) to design, construct, and install, or design and assist farmers to construct and install water facilities, such as wells, ponds, reservoirs, dams, pumps, springs, stock water tanks, spreading systems for utilizing run-off water, and similar improvements to help to stabilize agriculture in areas of irregular and limited rainfall.

Often the development of a small water facility means to a farmer or rancher the difference between failure and success in his struggle against the handicaps of an adverse natural environment. Consequently, many of them, lacking such facilities, are on relief. Better use of lands, made possible by water facilities developments, is helping to put many needy families on a permanent self-sustaining basis on the land they now occupy.

An example of how water facilities developments helps to curb the migratory tendency is found in the case of Fred Koelmel near Bloomington. Mr. Koelmel farms 107 acres of land, and with a Federal Security Administration loan of $120 improved a well and windmill. This development furnishes water for the home and irrigation of a half-acre garden. In addition to designing the facility and helping him to install it, the Soil Conservation Service has furnished Mr. Koelmel with a conservation plan for his farm. Because of climatic conditions, the rest of the farm is yielding little this year, but the Koelmel family has had plenty of fresh vegetables and the cellar is full of canned vegetables. In addition, Koelmel has sold more than 250 pounds of cabbage from the garden, thereby receiving cash income to help him keep on a sound basis. (See photo.)

7. *Farm forestry.*—The objectives of this activity of the Soil Conservation Service are to aid farmers in managing and developing their tree areas as a measure for soil and moisture conservation, to augment farm income through wood products production, and to help establish sound and economical land-use methods.

The Cooperative Farm Forestry Act, passed by Congress in 1937, enables the Soil Conservation Service to meet the growing need of farmers for help in farm forestry matters, within the limits dictated by funds available, soil types, and climatic conditions. The act is broad enough to permit Federal cooperation in establishing farm shelterbelts and farm woodlands to promote farm security over wide areas in the Nation, and to give technical help to farm woodland owners in planning proper management of their woods and to demonstrate sound practices in handling them.

Operations on privately owned lands under this program are in charge of the Soil Conservation Service in areas predominantly agricultural; in areas where farming is incidental to forestry, the Forest Service is in charge. The whole program is carried out jointly with the Forest Service, State experiment stations, State foresters, and the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, the Soil Conservation Service being responsible for the action phases of the program.

The program consists principally of: (1) Producing or procuring and distributing forest planting stock to farmers (Forest Service-Soil Conservation Service); (2) advising farmers about the establishment, protection, and management of farm forests Extension Service-Soil Conservation Service); (3) investigating the economic and other benefits of farm woodland management; (4) training personnel in methods of bringing about the use of sound farm forestry practices; and, (5) development of the use of farm woodlots for the production of fuel, posts, and rough lumber, and in protecting growing crops and livestock.

Illustrative of how farm forestry is a vital factor in augmenting the farm income and aiding in curbing the migratory trend is the fact that during 1936 the income from wood products in Nebraska was in the neighborhood of $4,000,000. Further, the wood products can be handled like a savings account in that the harvest can be reserved for times of stress.

STATEMENT BY WILLKIE COLLINS, JR., ASSISTANT REGIONAL AGRONOMIST, SOIL CONSERVATION SERVICE, LINCOLN, NEBR.

Broadly speaking, the principal change in scope and objectives of the Soil Conservation Service brought about by action of the Secretary of Agriculture, charging the Soil Conservation Service with the management of the Departmental Land Use Program, has placed increased emphasis on sound conservation practices. In addition, special attention has been given to land use suitability and capability, and responsibility for control has been more or less given to local farmers so that in reality it is the farmers and ranchers' program, with the Soil Conservation Service giving technical assistance in carrying out the various phases of the program, which will result in stability of agriculture and preventing the recurrence of improper land use, soil wastage, and destitute conditions of farm families. Approach to this has been made by use of a soil survey in order to determine land use capability. Based on this survey the highly erodible and nonproductive soils are being permanently retired to grass. Certain favorable soil areas will be used for the production and the building up of a sufficient reserve feed supply for use during adverse years.

In a like manner, a grass inventory has been made on the range lands, and a minimum carrying capacity which will assure proper stocking of the ranges has been instituted. This proper stocking not only aids in control of erosion, but increases the potential productivity of the range lands.

Considerable emphasis has been given to the reseeding of abandoned croplands. Approximately 200,000 acres of idle crop land purchased by the Government have been seeded to perennial grasses, with an average of about 85-percent success of these seedings. At the present time there is an additional 500,000 or more acres of Government-owned land yet to be seeded.

In addition to establishing land-use capabilities, proper stocking of range and reseeding abandoned cropland, water spreading, flood irrigation, contour furrowing, strip cropping, contour farming, and the development of stock watering places are some of the practices that have been widely instituted in the land-use program.

Soil conservation districts are being organized in some of the land-purchase areas, and boards of supervisors are set up to assume responsibility for a complete soil and water conservation program. In some of the other land-utilization areas, grazing districts have been organized, and the Service is cooperating with the grazing districts in water development, reseeding, range-management practices, and proper land use. These practices are carried out in connection with a sound land management program that will insure proper land use on these areas in the future.

At the present time there are 20 districts that have been favorably voted on in Nebraska; 12 in South Dakota, 11 in North Dakota, 3 in Montana, making a total of 46 districts. These districts all originate in the same manner. The Extension Service is designated as carrying out the necessary educational work for the Department. Farmers who are interested in the formation of a soil-conservation district petition the State committee in order to secure their approval for organization of a district. The State committee holds hearings relative to the advisability of allowing the soil-conservation district to be organized. Then a date is set and referendum is held and the landowners vote to determine whether or not a district should be organized. In the event the vote is favorable, the Sate soil conservation committee gives approval: the board of supervisors is elected; work plan and work program prepared, and a memorandum of understanding is entered into with the Department of Agriculture. This memorandum of understanding allows the Department of Agriculture to cooperate with the district by furnishing technical assistance, and in some States, loan equipment, and supply planting material.

Taking the Cedar district as an example, I might tell you briefly how the district functions: The Cedar soil conservation district was organized during the latter part of 1938, and is located in Sioux and Grant Counties in North Dakota. It consists of 303,000 acres. The elected board of supervisors have control of the work program and the type of work that is being accomplished in the district. One of the first things that the board of supervisors did after its election was to call a general meeting of all farmers and ranchers and to vote on land-use regulations requiring the range to be grazed not to exceed carrying capacity, and requiring the land to be used in accordance with the land-use-capability classification determined by a soils survey. All land not suitable for cultivation is being retired to grass. All grassland is being properly grazed.

The Soil Conservation Service technicians, consisting of a district conservationist and engineer, a range examiner and soils technician, are busy making surveys and working out individual farm plans, which the supervisors approve and which are carried out by the individual cooperators.

In this particular soil-conservation district, the county has taken over a large portion of the land for taxes; the supervisors have leased all of this land from the county, and have in turn, subleased it to cooperating ranchers and farmers so that grazing units can be blocked out, and are of sufficient size to assure sufficient economic returns. In this way a system of agriculture is being applied in this area which is economically sound and assures proper land use and will adequately control wind and water erosion, thus making a permanent and stabilized agriculture for the ranchers in this district.

In addition, water development is being carried out on the ranges and small irrigation projects on Cedar Creek are operating to supply vegetables and supplemental feed for livestock. An effort is being made to get the farmers concentrated along this creek so that savings in maintenance of roads, schools, and other county institutions can be effected. This is an outstanding example of where the Government has helped the farmers to help themselves and, to a very noticeable extent, the farmers are happy and industriously engaged in completing the details of this program.

This soil-conservation district is the first district in the United States to vote upon themselves land-use regulations, and the only one in this region. In most instances a program that is legally adopted is being carried out on a voluntary basis.

TESTIMONY OF E. H. AICHER—Resumed

Mr. CURTIS. I gather from your paper that on the basis of historical records it is shown that instability among the rural population followed closely upon the heels of actual settlement?

Mr. AICHER. That is right.

Mr. CURTIS. Would you review the causes of this instability?

HEAVY SETTLEMENT OF GOVERNMENT LAND IN GREAT PLAINS, 1909–30

Mr. AICHER. It will be necessary to go back to the period before 1910. The ranges had been in use and ranches were getting along very well. From 1909 to 1915 the Homestead Act brought about a heavy settlement in the entire northern Great Plains area. This settlement coincided with abundant rainfall, good prices which were greatly increased when the Great War came on, and the desire of the people to own land. The people were land-hungry. The railroads had received large grants which they desired to dispose of and they wished to stimulate business along their lines. The communities likewise desired to develop and were instrumental in stimulating publicity and promotional activities.

Most of the settlers came from the East. Some of them were good farmers. Many of them were not. Altogether they brought with them the type of living to which they were accustomed, including the type of agriculture they had practiced. Most of them brought money with them which they used for construction of homes and buildings and for equipping their farm units. Money thus spent helped develop the local communities. Land was new; credit was easy.

OVERDEVELOPMENT OF SETTLED AREA

With the abundant rains, crops were good. Schools and roads were established for the heavily populated community which had developed. Perhaps the best illustration is the map of Musselshell County which is made a part of the exhibit.[1] This map shows approximately 790 miles of roads which had been developed in this north half of Musselshell County which is now a part of one of the land-utilization project areas. At the present time only 351 miles of roads are needed to serve people living in the area. Thus approximately 366 miles of roads were constructed when the settlement was at its height which now can be abandoned. To date only about 75 miles have actually been abandoned.

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[1] Map held in committee files, not printed.

Overdevelopment of public schools also took place.

About 1917 the first of the drought years were experienced. In 1920 deflation occurred and with it the beginning of the troubles which later enveloped the area.

Mr. Curtis. What particular territory are you confining that to, the overdevelopment of schools and roads?

Mr. Aicher. North and South Dakota and Montana.

Mr. Curtis. The Bad Lands region in South Dakota?

Mr. Aicher. Not particularly. I will leave for the records a summary of the abandonment of schools and changes which have been brought about by the school districts in the land-utilization projects which illustrate the adjustments which have taken place.

Mr. Curtis. Who is responsible for this, the Congress of the United States in opening up for homestead settlement all this free land? People were encouraged to go into land where it was impossible to put agricultural economy into practice?

REASONS FOR ULTIMATE FAILURE OF SETTLERS

Mr. Aicher. Three things. The railroads desired to develop their territory and newly established communities wanted to grow, and the speculators encouraged development in order to sell land. Not sufficient consideration was given to the soil and type of agriculture best suited to this particular area.

Mr. Curtis. The Congress has made some errors in handling this public land?

Mr. Aicher. Yes; there were serious errors made in handling public land.

Mr. Curtis. All of which is more or less beyond the control of the individual settler?

Mr. Aicher. That is right.

Mr. Curtis. Proceed.

Mr. Aicher. I mentioned awhile ago the ease of credit. Commercial banks, loan companies, insurance companies, all made credit available. When the interest rates increased and commercial credit was no longer available, the Federal Government began making loans through the various agricultural credit agencies. The State assisted, South and North Dakota were making State funds available. Power machinery brought on additional troubles. Farmers wanted to farm large areas; prices lowered, and they had to farm large areas in order to make their business profitable, so that it became very difficult for the small or tenant farmer and small owner who couldn't secure sufficient land to make enough to get along.

The Chairman. Did the inflation period during the war result in the higher-priced land, so that a man took what land he owned and bought additional lands, and finally lost it all?

Mr. Aicher. Yes; I recall in 1919, shortly before the deflation came in 1920, the ease of credit at livestock sales when farmers were urged to purchase high-priced livestock and equipment that they could get along without because credit was easy and conditions good. Deflation, when it came, coincided with drought and crop failure. Prices were greatly reduced, and the income from farms, for the little that was produced, could not meet the expenses. Pressure was exerted on mortgage indebtedness and tax delinquency increased materially. The extremely difficult conditions caused a great migration of farm people from the States of North and South Dakota and Montana.

LAND-USE PROGRAM OF SOIL CONSERVATION SERVICE

Mr. CURTIS. Now, will you elaborate a little bit on the point in your written statement as to what the Soil Conservation Service's objectives are, with the management of the land-use program, as it relates to the problem being studied by this committee.

Mr. AICHER. Let Mr. Collins answer that question.

Mr. COLLINS. The objectives of the land-use program under the administration of the Soil Conservation Service have undergone some changes during the last few years. Probably one of the biggest of the changes in objective is the fact that the emphasis on soil-conservation practices has been considerably intensified. In addition to that, and probably the greatest amount of improvement that has been made is just how we get at the land-use problem—I might show you briefly here, from a map.[1]

SOIL SURVEY OF EACH FARM

Mr. COLLINS. In other words, we have gone far enough to know that it isn't entirely satisfactory just to say that from a land use standpoint, "This land is to be in cultivation," and, "This is to be grazing land." We make a conservation survey of a farm and then in different colors on that map, which is an individual farm, show the land that is suitable for cultivation without any particular conservation practices needed. Then the second class of land, which is pink on this map, is land that is suitable for cultivation, but is also land to which must be applied rather complex conservation practices.

If it is rolling then the top soil may be washing away, or else it may be soil very susceptible to wind erosion.

Mr. CURTIS. What does it cost to make that survey of a farm?

Mr. COLLINS. Well, the acres we have surveyed this year have cost 2¼ cents each to survey.

Mr. CURTIS. How extensive a survey do you make—a chemical analysis of the soil?

Mr. COLLINS. No; we don't. Through the different colleges we get some soil information, but we do classify the soils and know their inherent characteristics. We work out a chart showing the suitability of that soil, how it can be used, and its capabilities.

Mr. CURTIS. Well, what are the qualifications of your men that go out on the individual farms and decide these things?

Mr. COLLINS. The men are trained in soil science, but they don't decide on soil suitability and so forth entirely themselves. The farmers are brought in, and they are beginning to feel that it is their program, and that the Government is just assisting them in carrying out a land use program on their farms. Also, a technical committee at the college and the district supervisors assist in setting up these charts for a certain work area. We work very closely with the college officials on that, and the man who actually makes the survey is a trained soil scientist.

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[1] Map held in committee files.

Mr. CURTIS. He is the one who actually comes in contact with the farmer and who goes out and goes over the farm?

Mr. COLLINS. He makes the conservation survey and sometimes does the planning himself, or there is a planning technician who has practical farm training who does the planning with the farmer. In other words, it is a volunteer program. The farmers are not forced to do anything, and the program is worked out in cooperation with the farmer. Then if it happens to be in the soil-conservation district, they assist in making the plan. The land-use conservation practices must all be approved by a board of supervisors.

Mr. CURTIS. At what point does compliance with these recommendations become compulsory, after the county board acts, or does it ever?

Mr. COLLINS. It isn't compulsory that they comply, but they agree to follow a 5-year plan, and the only time it would be compulsory would be after the conservation district had furnished planting material or equipment of any kind; then they are liable for cost of material or rental of equiment.

Mr. CURTIS. Well, I understand, here in Nebraska, that you can take a specimen of soil from a farm and submit it to the Extension Service of the College of Agriculture, and you will get a chemical analysis and recommendation as to planning, and so on. Does your work duplicate that, or does it supplement it, or is it educational work to encourage organizations of farmers to go into that?

Mr. COLLINS. It is cooperative work with them. It isn't duplication, because we depend on the colleges for soil analyses. We do not have a soils laboratory in the Soil Conservation Service in the northern Great Plains region.

Mr. CURTIS. Do you duplicate anything that is done through the Department of Agriculture experiment stations?

Mr. COLLINS. Well, it isn't a matter of duplication; it is a matter of taking the practices that have proven successful on the demonstration projects that have been carried on the last 5 years by the Soil Conservation Service and all of the practices that have proven successful on the experiment stations, and helping the farmer apply these things to his farm. In that respect those programs, as they are worked out, are cleared with the college extension service and experiment stations.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

Mr. CURTIS. How about these high-school courses? The colleges appropriate money each year to assist in these agricultural courses. Do the instructors in these high schools, in their attitudes along agricultural lines, assist with what you are doing?

Mr. COLLINS. Yes; to a certain extent. Their work is primarily with the boys, and some of them are holding evening schools among the adult farmers. While they don't have time to go out and do individual farm planning, except, perhaps, with just the boys who are taking their course, we are working with soil-conservation districts where there are vocational instructors in the high schools, and they are very valuable, and render service and assistance in working with the county agent and some with the Soil Conservation Service, in carrying on an educational program with the farmer.

Mr. CURTIS. Do you find that some farmers already are doing these things quickly and others require more leadership in it?

Mr. COLLINS. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. Where is your office—here in Lincoln?

Mr. COLLINS. Yes, sir.

TERRITORY COVERED

Mr. CURTIS. And how much of a territory do you have?

Mr. COLLINS. Well, this region consists of North and South Dakota, Montana, Wyoming, and Nebraska—five States in the northern Great Plains region.

Mr. CURTIS. Here in Nebraska, about how much of the territory has availed itself of this service?

Mr. COLLINS. I think, Mr. Chairman, we will ask Mr. Engstrom, who is the State coordinator for Nebraska, to answer that question. I think he is in the audience.

Mr. CURTIS. Give your name, so we can identify you.

Mr. ENGSTROM. H. E. Engstrom, State coordinator of the Soil Conservation Service for Nebraska. In reply to your question, Congressman, there have been approximately 2,660—the number changes from day to day—farm agreements entered into in the State of Nebraska covering some 785,000 acres. Does that answer your question?

Mr. CURTIS. Yes. Well, now, how much in the entire region? Do you have those figures?

Mr. ENGSTROM. I don't have the figures for the entire region here.

Mr. CURTIS. Some of you gentlemen can supply that for the committee?

Mr. AICHER. I will supply that for the record.[1]

Mr. CURTIS. Has your program been in operation long enough so that you can draw some conclusions concerning the area you have served, as against a like area that hasn't been served? Farmers are getting along better, raising more; a few of them are leaving, more of them are leaving; have you any reports along that line?

Mr. AICHER. We have not the figures here, but we have records at our office presenting the results of this activity.

Mr. CURTIS. Just summarize briefly your observations, please.

EROSION CONTROL

Mr. AICHER. In all of our activities the erosion-control feature is primary. You can see it on some of these maps.

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[1] Cooperative agreements written by the Soil Conservation Service as of May 1, 1940, total 5,654 and cover 4,558,445 acres.

WATER-FACILITIES PROGRAM

Mr. Curtis. Is the administration of the water-facilities program under your office?

Mr. Aicher. The water-facilities program is jointly administered by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, the Farm Security Administration and the Soil Conservation Service. The first agency prepares the over-all plans; the Farm Security Administration provides loans to the cooperator; and the Soil Conservation Service is in charge of the operations and installation of the facility.

Mr. Curtis. To how many counties is that extended in Nebraska?

Mr. Aicher. Mr. Engstrom can give you that information.

Mr. Engstrom. Water facilities cover about 700 square miles in the Republican River Valley, largely on the south side of the channel, and to the confluence of the Beaver Creek. It also covers a portion of the Niobrara River drainage, extending from the Wyoming State line east to the west line of Cherry County, in which there are approximately 2¼ million acres; on the third area that has been approved by the board for operations, it covers the Lodge Pole Creek area tributary to the Republican, and approximately a million and a quarter acres in three counties in the southern portion of the Panhandle.

Mr. Curtis. About how many counties does that cover?

Mr. Engstrom. About 34.

Mr. Curtis. Now, one of the things you do is to make your investigation and your recommendations, which will enable the farmer to borrow money from the Farm Security Agency for what you call pump irrigation and other small irrigation works, is that not right?

Mr. Engstrom. That is true. Our applications are submitted to the local county board. A rural rehabilitation board, that is, and they determine whether or not the applicant is eligible. In other words, the applicant must be a needy farmer—in need of assistance. Generally, he does not have local credit to draw upon for the purpose of developing the water facilities, whether it be a pump, a flood-spreading device, or spring, or what.

Mr. Curtis. In that connection, then, with the exception of a Federal Housing 3-year loan, worked through the banks at the present time, there is no governmental provision for pump irrigation in any of the counties lying outside of the counties served by the Water Facilities Board, or the so-colled middle-class people, even though they are in tre region?

Mr. Engstrom. That is true. There is no Federal agency that is directly authorized to spend public funds for that purpose.

Mr. Curtis. But there is definitely a field in which to do some great good by extending pump irrigation to those other people, is that not right?

Mr. Engstrom. I think there is; yes, sir.

UTILIZATION OF LAND PROJECTS AND EFFECT ON MIGRATION

Mr. Curtis. Have you men any observations, or records, or other items that you might mention in connection with land use and the soil conservation in reference to this outward migration of our people at this time, that you would like to give to this committee.

Mr. Aicher. I would like to bring to the attentiotn of the committee the development of the land-utilization projects, how the mirgration problem has been met, and how the units have been organized. I will take MT-3 at Roundup, Mont., as an example.

This project totals 1,759,480 acres. The land ownership pattern is as follows: 290,520 acres of purchased submarginal land; 231,461 acres of public domain; 17,630 acres of State land; and 95,630 acres of county tax-reverted land. Privately owned land and other corporate lands make up the total of 96,000.

The local ranchers remaining in the area have organized 10 cooperative grazing districts under the Montana Grass Conservation Districts Act. The local ranchers control their own operations. The Soil Conservation Service furnishes only the technical assistance and the farmers run their own businesses. There are 232 members in the 10 association of which 195 have been issued permits to run livestock in the project area.

When the project was begun in 1934, the average size of the unit was approximately 3,142 acres including large and small units. At the present time after the adjustment, size of the units has been increased to 6,046 acres.

When the project was begun, there were 533 operators within the area. There are now 247 or a reduction of more than 50 percent. (The summary of the relocation of those departing from the area appears under III of the condensed summary made a part of this record.)

The committee would like to know something of the tax-delinquent land situation in this project. In 1934 the Government purchased 43,359 acres of tax-delinquent land in Petroleum County, Mont.

Mr. Curtis. Is that to the county or to the State?

Mr. Aicher. That went to the Government. These were tax-delinquent farms which first reverted to the counties because of failure to pay taxes.

Mr. Curtis. The Federal Government? What for?

Mr. Aicher. Yes; the Federal Government. This was in the submarginal-land-purchase area.

Mr. Curtis. To go into a land-utilization program?

Mr. Aicher. Yes; that is right. Musselshell County sold 14,205 acres of tax-reverted land to the Government. In addition, Petroleum County in 1939 had over 100,000 acres of tax-reverted land which they had just recently taken, and Musselshell County some 73,000 acres more.

Mr. Curtis. What did the taxes average per acre that went into default?

Mr. Aicher. I do not remember, but I will be glad to furnish it to the committee, The public debt situation also is interesting. In Musselshell County in 1936, it was $771,000. This had been cut down by 1939 to $582,500. The Petroleum County debt had been reduced from $101,697 in 1936 to $90,042 in 1939.

Mr. Curtis. The debt of the farmers?

Mr. Aicher. No; the debt of the county—the county government. Part of that $771,000 was due to a bond issue of $300,000 to build roads which I referred to a while ago which now have to be abandoned because they are unnecessary.

Mr. Curtis. Nobody uses them?

Mr. Aicher. Nobody there can utilize them. The ranchers, you see, have reorganized their holdings and many of the roads are useless. People who formerly used them are gone. Most of the young people who could get away left the area in an attempt to find something to do to make a living. Some of them are waiting to take the place of the parents.

The public-school debt in Petroleum County amounted to $17,000 in 1936. This has since been reduced to $4,000. In Musselshell County in 1936 the school indebtedness was $79,577. This had increased to $112,196 by 1939——

Mr. Curtis (interposing). Mr. Aicher, those figures are in the——

Mr. Aicher (interposing). They are not in the prepared statement, but I can submit them. I have them here. I will be glad to do this.

Mr. Curtis. We will appreciate that very much.

Mr. Aicher. We would like to submit some other information of interest to the committee.

Mr. Curtis. The reporter will take those and identify them.

Mr. Aicher. The adjustments which have been effected in school districts, the present taxation of the area, and so forth. I also have, Mr. Chairman, data on the land-utilization projects in this region, which shows the initial number of farm-unit families that resided in the area, what has happened to them, and how many we have left in each of these areas. It may be of interest for your record.

Mr. Curtis. We would be glad to have you include it.

Mr. Aicher. And then we also thought you might like to have some typical examples of adjustments effected by the program. We have three farmers, definite family adjustments, here which may be of interest.

Mr. Curtis. I would suggest you submit all of those to the reporter for such further disposition as the committee, through its chairman, makes of them in our report.

Mr. Reporter, you will identify those as exhibits. We thank you gentlemen for your oral testimony here, as well as for the valuable papers that you have prepared.

(The various papers referred to were combined and marked as an exhibit and appear as follows:)

CONDENSED SUMMARY OF ADJUSTMENTS EFFECTED IN MONTANA LAND UTILIZATION PROJECT (LU–MT–3), ROUNDUP, MONT.

(Soil Conservation Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture, region 7, Lincoln, Nebr.)

I. *Land ownership.*—Total acres in the project area, 1,759,480.

This is divided in ownership as follows (January 1940):

	Acres
(*a*) Public domain	231, 461
(*b*) Government purchased land	290, 520
(*c*) State land	17, 630
(*d*) County tax-deed land	95, 630
(*e*) Privately owned land	86, 359
(*f*) Other land, mostly corporate	96, 083

Local ranchers have organized 10 cooperative grazing districts in the area under Montana's Grass Conservation Districts Act. Local ranchers control their operations and receive only technical guidance from the Soil Conservation Service.

The combined grazing association membership is 232.

Grazing permits have been issued to 195 permittees.

II. *Adjustment in size of unit*

	Acres
Size of units before adjustment	3,142
After adjustment, size of unit is	6,046

III. *Occupation and relocation data*

		Operators
At beginning of project in 1934, there were		533

When adjustment is completed, operating units will total 247.

Received payments for submarginal land sold to the Government and departed		107
Left the area voluntarily		179
Of the latter:		
Relocated within the State		68
Went to other States:		
Washington	8	
Nebraska	2	
Iowa	1	
Idaho	11	
Wyoming	3	
California	5	
Oklahoma	1	
North Dakota	1	
Florida	1	
Illinois	1	
Oregon	2	
Indiana	1	
Germany	1	
West coast	1	
		39
Departed without leaving word as to destination		52
Of the 107 who sold submarginal land to the Government:		
Located by Farm Security Administration on the Sun River irrigation project		33
Welfare clients, Farm Security Administration grant cases, or on old-age pensions		18
Living on optioned land in January 1940; some of these will be relocated by the Farm Security Administration		20

Others have relocated within the counties and are now operating small business establishments or have found employment.

IV. *The tax delinquent land situation*

	Petroleum County	Musselshell County
1934—tax delinquent land sold to Government	43,359	14,205
1939—delinquent tax deed lands in area	100,000	73,000

V. *The public debt situation*

	1936	1939-40
County debts:		
Musselshell County[1]	771,000	582,500
Petroleum County	101,695	90,042
School debts:		
Musselshell County	79,577	112,196
Petroleum County	17,319	4,191

[1] $300,000 of road and bridge construction bonds were issued before 1920, much of which is still unpaid. Action is being taken to abandon much of the road system on which part of this money was spent.

VI. *Personal tax improvement.*—The personal property taxes are showing a marked increase as a result of restocking of ranges and more accurate assessments. From present indications the increase in personal property valuations will largely offset the loss in tax-paying real estate.

VII. Showing adjustments which have taken place in rural school systems

	1934-35	1939-40
Number of districts	52	30
Number of schools	59	25
Number of pupils	359	228
Total costs	$73,921	$70,100
Average expense per school	$1,252	$2,920
Average cost per pupil	$132	$307

VIII. *Showing adjustments made and needed in road system*

	Miles
Total mileage designated or in use before 1934	790
Miles road needed to serve all ranchers living in project area	351
Road mileage no longer needed	366
Miles road already abandoned	73

(County commissioners have taken action to abandon much of the 366 miles no longer needed.)

IX. *Consolidation of county offices.*—Saving $1,200, assessor and county superintendent in Petroleum County.

Saving $1,500, assessor with county clerk and recorder in Musselshell County.

Accomplishments report LA-MT-3; LU-MT-38-3, Musselshell and Petroleum Counties, Roundup, Mont., Dec. 31, 1939

Farmsteads obliterated	sets	226
Fencing:		
New	miles	200
Obliterated	do	226
Furrows—contour	acres	38,566
Grazing associations organized		16
Grazing—controlled	acres	434,364
Plantings—shrubs, trees		12,500
Range surveys completed	acres	1,530,874
Seeded to grass:		
Abandoned crop land seeded for grazing	do	20,100
Abandoned crop land seeded for hay	do	3,200
Structures—Cattle guards constructed		67
Terracing	acres	100

Accomplishments report LA–MT–3; LU–MT–3, Musselshell and Petroleum Counties, Roundup, Mont., Dec. 31, 1939—Continued

Water development:	
Reservoirs constructed	238
Springs developed	15
Wells developed	2
Water spreading—range irrigation ......acres	913
Wildlife development:	
10 units ......do	350
Reservoirs:	
Aquatic seeding	59
Stocked with fish	41

Organization of grazing associations and extent of control exerted by stockmen over all grazing lands, public and private, in Soil Conervations Service Areas,[1] *Soil Conservation Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture, region 7, Lincoln, Nebr., June 1940*

[Land other than "Acres privately owned" is leased by the associations]

	Total acres in project area	Public domain	Purchased land	State land	County land	Privately owned land	Other land	Number of grazing associations	Number of permittees	Number of members	Size of unit before	Size of unit after	Total operators before	Total operators after
MONTANA														
MT-2:		*Acres*	*Acres*	*Acres*	*Acres*	*Acres*	*Acres*				*Acres*	*Acres*		
Valley	6, 557, 842	1, 626, 225	875, 970	188, 932	232, 815	632, 120	129, 981	11	621	927	1, 118	(2)	2, 591	1, 563
Blaine														
Phillips														
MT-3:														
Musselshell	1, 759, 480	231, 461	290, 520	17, 630	95, 630	86, 359	96, 083	10	195	232	3, 142	6, 046	533	247
Petroleum														
MT-4: Prairie	1, 104, 149	55, 518	391, 354	46, 171	----------	262, 154	39, 938	[3] 1	140	140	1, 000	3, 450	503	247
MT-21:														
Fallon	1, 362, 000	86, 502	125, 099	----------	----------	229, 879	----------	2	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------
Custer														
MT-22: Fergus	1, 643, 146	220, 694	86, 443	21, 892	87, 300	49, 318	----------	6	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------
MT-23: Buffalo Creek	561, 280	2, 480	77, 023	14, 960	59, 024	95, 520	----------	1	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------
Total	12, 986. 382	2, 222, 880	1, 846, 409	252, 733	328, 445	980, 633	266, 002	31	956	1, 299	----------	----------	3, 627	2, 057
NORTH DAKOTA														
ND-1: McKenzie	848, 400	33, 962	252, 148	46, 862	64, 103	109, 587	92, 244	1	245	245	----------	----------	582	320
ND-2:														
Billings	568, 802	----------	144, 551	23, 642	30, 000	65, 908	47, 727	1	86	86	----------	----------		
Golden Valley														
ND-6:														
Ransom	122, 200	----------	69, 202	----------	----------	----------	----------	1	67	67	538	1, 250	200	88
Richland														
Total	1, 539, 402	33, 962	465, 901	70, 504	94, 103	175, 495	139, 971	3	398	398	----------	----------	782	408

SOUTH DAKOTA													
SD-1: Jackson Fall River Custer Pennington	1,300,000	56,710	518,948	118,850	126,750	478,742	None	[4] 6	365	365	1,600	3,680	853	456
SD-2: Lyman Stanley Jones	209,840	238	114,417	20,160	5,480	28,480	41,064	1	54	62	1,680	3,130	125	62
SD-21: Perkins Corson	[5] 500,000	11,087	92,000	118,310	48,047	321,871	[6] 22,796	1	9	9	673		[7] 520	
Total	2,009,840	68,035	725,365	257,320	180,277	829,093	63,860	8	428	436			978	518
WYOMING														
WYO-1: Campbell Converse Weston Crook	1,098,000	190,000	297,204			17,400		2	16	116	640	1,631	351	127
WYO-21: Weston	973,220	265,750	5,400	79,940		832,000		1	10	10			[7] 450	
Total	2,071,220	455,750	302,604	79,940		849,400		3	126	126			351	127
NEBRASKA														
NEB-1: Sioux Dawes	446,000		97,983					1	104	104	1,650	2,780	197	119
Grand total	15,486,418	2,470,951	3,149,697	660,497	602,825	2,834,621	469,833	46	2,012	2,363			6,035	3,229

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[1] 9 grazing associations have recently been organized in Montana projects 21, 22, and 23 for which figures are incomplete and which are not included.

[2] Size of unit after North Valley, 5,000 acres; South Valley, 15,000 acres; North Blaine, 2,500 acres; North Phillips, 1,000 acres; and South Phillips, 13,000 acres.

[3] Total land controlled by grazing districts in Prairie County, 789,135 acres; total lands not controlled by grazing districts in Prairie County, 210,951 acres.

[4] 3 associations included which are functioning as unorganized cooperatives.

[5] Grazing association organization perfected; will function 1940.

[6] 10,167 acres Federal land bank land included.

[7] Not included in total.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE GRASS CONSERVATION DISTRICT COOPERATIVE PLAN

In the Grass Range and Flat Willow grazing districts in the Fergus County land utilization project in Montana, cooperative relationships have been developed with the United States Department of Agriculture whereby the only help the districts receive from the Soil Conservation Service will be technical. Agricultural Adjustment Administration payments may be used for development work.

Technical assistance to be provided by Soil Conservation Service will include:

1. Mapping of all available and potential water supply.
2. Calculations of potential water run-off which may be diverted for flooding of flat grasslands to develop the maximum feed base.
3. Conduct a reconnaissance soil survey to determine lands best suited for water-spreading operations.
4. Vegetative cover survey for the determination of carrying capacity in order to develop proper spring, summer, and winter grazing possibilities.
5. Working out proper land-use plan for each cooperator in the area.

The ranchers will do their own work in carrying out the plan. Soil Conservation payments made available through the Agricultural Adjustment Administration will provide funds for reseeding abandoned cultivated lands and for developing water as indicated in the over-all map.

The ranchers are enthusiastic over the possibilities and are giving the very best cooperation.

Limitation of funds for land purchase may prevent maximum family adjustments in this area.

REPORT OF SUBMARGINAL LAND PURCHASE AND LAND MANAGEMENT OPERATIONS ON THE MUSSELSHELL-CENTRAL MONTANA LAND UTILIZATION PROJECT

The Musselshell-Central Montana land utilization project was initiated in 1934 under the Agricultural Adjustment Administration for the purpose of effecting adjustments in land use through the purchase of submarginal land and its retirement from cultivation.

The territory as a whole had proven unsuitable for dry-land farming. The livestock economy of the area had been largely disrupted during the homestead era. The land was divided up into small parcels under a diversity of ownership making it difficult to control enough land for an economic livestock unit. Too many settlers remained in the area to allow all to run livestock successfully. One hundred sixty to six hundred forty acres was considered a dry-land farming unit, while in this section 10 to 20 sections are required for a livestock unit. Therefore, it was necessary to remove a certain number of settlers from the area and aid the remaining operators in gaining control of sufficient acreage to change their operations from that of dry-land farming to livestock production.

When the program was started in 1934, 533 operators were in the area. The area includes 1,759,480 acres. The average sized unit contained 3,142 acres. However, there were some large units within the area at that time. Therefore, a large majority of the operators had much less than the average stated above.

At this time, 291 operators remain in the area and the average size of unit is 6,046 acres. An increase in the size of units of 92.4 percent has been made available. In 1934, 90 percent of the units had a combination cash crop and livestock economy. Two percent were exclusively cash crop and 8 percent were exclusively livestock. At present 60 percent of the operators have combination cash-crop and livestock units. However, the 60 percent having combination units are able to run more livestock than in the past and have much better balanced operations.

In accomplishing those adjustments, the Federal Government purchased 290.520 acres of land, a goodly portion of which was devoted to dry-land grain production. Of the land purchased, 95 percent was delinquent in taxes for a period of 2 years or more and had ceased contributing to the welfare of the Government and its institutions.

In 1936 a program of development was initiated. All developments were directed to the improvement of the territory for livestock production. Crested wheatgrass has been seeded on 23,068 acres. That program has been very successful in bringing nonproducing lands back into production and controlling erosion. The entire area does not have a year-round living stream.

It was very difficult in the past to properly manage the range due to the lack of water. Therefore, in order to make possible proper range management, a water-development program was carried out. Two hundred and forty-five livestock reservoirs were constructed, 17 springs and 2 wells were developed. At the present time, the territory is well-watered and, in few instances, does stock have to travel more than 2 miles to water. Two hundred and thirty-nine sets of abandoned buildings have been obliterated thus removing livestock hazards and discouraging reoccupation. One hundred and ninety miles of fence have been constructed on grazing district boundaries to aid in proper distribution and management of livestock. Eighty-seven percent of the area has been covered by a vegetative survey which also aids in proper distribution and proper management of livestock on the range.

The entire area is covered by grass-conservation districts organized under the grass-conservation district law passed in 1939 by the Montana State Legislature. These districts are controlled by a board of directors elected by the membership. Technical cooperation has been furnished and in most cases relied on extensively by the local grazing districts. Of the area, within grazing districts, approximately 17 percent is purchased land and 11.8 percent is unpatented land or public domain. In this area, through a memorandum of understanding with the Grazing Service of the Department of the Interior, the public-domain lands and purchased lands are handled cooperatively by the two organizations. The Grazing Service or public-domain lands are not transferred but both purchased and public-domain lands are made available to the grazing districts through a cooperative agreement between the Grazing Service and the State grass-conservation districts.

We know of no specified instance where any established livestock operator has been affected adversely on this project. Their rights have definitely been protected and the program has been directed toward the stabilization of such operations. In no case in effecting adjustment for a dry-land farmer or small operator has land been taken from larger or better established operators. Some operators of the speculative type who neither owned nor controlled any appreciable amount of range, but operated in trespass, have been forced from the area or their operations curtailed. Such action further contributes to the welfare of legitimate resident operators and to the welfare of the local government.

The project was initiated in 1934 under an emergency program. Little planning was possible due to the time element involved. Lands were offered for purchase by the owners and purchased with little regard to the effect of such purchase. However, at the present time, the purchase of lands is carefully planned. Each tract recommended for purchase must meet an exacting criteria. The land is purchased for the definite purpose of removing submarginal lands from cultivation, removing uneconomic units from production, and making it possible for the occupant to leave the area. Other reasons for purchase are for development of water or erosion control. The purchase of each tract must be entirely justified with the idea always in mind of purchasing as little land as possible and still effecting the desired adjustments.

TYPICAL EXAMPLES OF ADJUSTMENTS EFFECTED BY THE PROGRAM

H. A. Henninger unit: See attached article regarding his operations.

R. P. Griffith unit: In 1936, due to economic conditions, drought, overgrazing, and lack of feed reserve and general instability of operations due to lack of control of his range lands, Mr. Griffith was forced to sell all of his cattle and winter his horses on nearly starvation rations. He borrowed $550 to buy feed to winter his small amount of livestock. In 1938, he borrowed $7,780 and restocked 121 head of cattle. He owns 560 acres of land and leases or has a permit from the grazing district for 960 acres. He has a permit to graze 135 animal units in his grazing association at present. In 1939, he repaid $1,367.50 or 5⅔ percent of his indebtedness. At the present time, he has control of his range lands made possible through the purchase program and the grazing district operation. He has an ample reserve store of feed on the ground and in the stack to tide him over a series of poor years such as forced him from business in 1936.

William Jenkins unit: Mr. Jenkins borrowed $520 to winter his stock in 1936. He owns 240 acres of land and controls an additional 3,800 acres through leases or grazing-district permit. Later he borrowed $4,425 to restock his unit. He now has privilege in the grazing district for 40 animal units which will increase as his allotment increases in carrying capacity. During 1939 he repaid $2,928 of his loan. He now owns 2 cows, 6 horses, and 589 sheep. He is now able to plan his operations for the future as he has positive control of his range and is able to plan his operations on a long-time basis.

Martin Smith unit: Mr. Smith was forced to sell all of his stock with the exception of 11 horses. In 1938, he borrowed $5,080 to buy another foundation herd. He owns 2,040 acres of land and controls an additional 1,880 acres through lease or grazing-district permit. He has sold all of his male increase of cattle and now owns 90 head of cattle and 15 horses. His grazing privileges amount to 115 animal units in the grazing district. He formerly grazed about this same number by overgrazing his range and was consequently forced to liquidate his investment during adverse years. He has repaid $700 of his loan, which is 13.8 percent of his indebtedness.

The greatest factor in the success of the above operators is in the stability given their operations through control of the range upon which they operate. They are now assured to such control over a period of years and are able to properly stock their range and build up their feed resources.

Family data, relocation land-utilization projects, region 7, Soil Conservation Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Lincoln, Nebr.

Project	Initial units	Occupied units acquired by purchase	Units to remain	Relocated in area, outside towns	Relocated State, outside area	Relocated out of State	Still in occupancy, to move later	Moved to town	Living with relatives	Moved, no record	Deceased
NB-1 and 38-1	197	83	119	8	4	5	8	36	8	11	12
WY-1 and 38-1	309	154	142	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
WY-38-21	375	46	------	------	------	------	14	------	------	------	------
MT-2 and 38-2	2,591	591	1,563	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
MT-3 and 38-3	533	107	247	12	31	24	18	------	------	2	2
MT-38-22	(1)	96	(2)	15	18	1	46	------	2	4	1
MT-38-23	140	23	80	4	3	1	9	------	------	------	3
MT-4 and 38-4	503	152	247	------	77	14	1	38	------	------	10
MT-38-21	599	90	531	4	25	7	48	15	------	------	------
ND-1 and 38-1	424	184	235	12	51	51	18	44	3	2	3
ND-2 and 38-2	158	68	86	8	16	19	8	13	------	------	------
ND-38-21	389	78	(2)	6	2	5	18	6	------	3	2
ND-38-23	116	40	(2)	------	1	4	12	2	------	------	1
ND-6 and 38-6	200	113	88	8	41	11	10	28	8	3	4
SD-1 and 38-1	682	366	359	------	------	------	21	------	------	------	------
SD-2 and 38-2	125	38	62	3	28	3	2	14	------	------	4
SD-38-21	506	121	254	21	39	22	38	29	------	------	1
Total	7,847	2,350	4,013	243	336	167	271	225	21	25	43

[1] Initial units not determined.

[2] Units to remain have not yet been ascertained.

Moved to town

Project	Private employment	Work Projects Administration	Old-age pension	Welfare and relief	Retired	Laborer	Other
NB-1 and 38-1	5	3	7	1	16	2	2
WY-1 and 38-1							
WY-38-21							
MT-2 and 38-2							
MT-3 and 38-3	11	2	5	2		3	
MT-38-22	3		1			1	4
MT-38-23	2						1
MT-4 and 38-4	5	7	6	18			2
MT-38-21							
ND-1 and 38-1	11	7	4	3		16	3
ND-2 and 38-2		9	4				
ND-38-21	1	1		1	1	1	1
ND-38-23	1	1					
ND-6 and 38-6	5	8	1	4	3	7	
SD-1 and 38-1							
SD-2 and 38-2	5		2		5		2
SD-38-21	3	2	4		3	9	8
Total	52	40	34	29	28	39	23

SUGGESTED LINE OF ACTION TO HELP STABILIZE RURAL POPULATION

(Suggested by E. H. Aicher in his testimony, Soil Conservation Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture)

1. Limitation on Agricultural Adjustment Administration payments to large operators and the development of the program so that more conservation is achieved.
2. Limited land purchase of tracts for irrigation development, making available large tracts adjoining irrigation development for range or pasture.
3. Purchase of large ranches in Montana, Nebraska, and North Dakota which may be divided for families to be relocated.
4. Better control of tax-delinquent land and the working out of sound land-use plans for these lands. Long-term lease and readjustment of land values on a basis of productivity. Length of tenure must be recognized as the beginning for any conservation of human and land resources.
5. Reduction of taxation by increasing efficiency of local government by:
   (*a*) Consolidation of local county offices.
   (*b*) Reorganization of school districts.
   (*c*) Elimination of the township unit of government.
6. Development of greater interest in agricultural planning in the farm community.
7. Funds sufficient to meet the needs of soil conservation district expansion. Erosion both by wind and water are serious factors in causing migration of families.

Mr. CURTIS. I offer at this time a statement from Mr. Arch W. Jarrell, of the Grand Island Daily Independent, Grand Island, Nebr.

(The statement referred to was identified as an exhibit and appears below:)

STATEMENT OF ARCH W. JARRELL, EDITOR, GRAND ISLAND (NEBR.) DAILY INDEPENDENT

Any way you look at it the answer to Nebraska's loss in population in the last 10 years is drought.

Tax foreclosures, loan foreclosures, these are byproducts of a drought that made it impossible for farmers to raise crops. And when farmers lost their farms and moved away—perhaps to California in search of the promised land—the towns as well faded away.

Weather records of the 1930's show that only in 4 years of that decade did Nebraska average more than 20 inches of rainfall, while in 2 of the years the precipitation was under 15 inches. These were the two excessive drought years of 1934 and 1936. This year—1940—probably will see portions of the State, including that around Grand Island suffering again with less than 15 inches. Grand Island's total up to has been 8.77 inches, or nearly 12 inches below normal for 9½ months.

This condition does not show up in the records of any other decade.

In the 1920's no year saw rainfall under 20 inches, and 2 years saw it over 25.

In the decade 1910–19, there were 2 years with rainfall under 20 inches, but none under 15; while one year—1915—saw the State's average at 35 inches, the highest on record.

The first decade of this century saw no year with rainfall under 20 inches, and 6 years with it over 25.

Even in the dry nineties, 1894 was the only year with rainfall under 15 inches, and 5 years had 20 or more.

The conclusion is inescapable. The drought has caused the migration of Nebraskans from the farms on which they once made a living. If the climate is permanently changing, or if we are in the midst of a long, dry cycle of which we have seen only a part, the migration will continue and there's nothing the Government can do about it.

The drought has been particularly disastrous in the central part of the State, which is neither well watered like the east nor, normally, arid like the west. In good years this part of the State can get along without much irrigation, while in bad years the farmers may not be prepared to irrigate, or the water may not be available.

To a degree the limits of which I do not know, pump irrigation would be a boon to this region. The possibilities of ditch irrigation in the Platte Valley are pretty well outlined already, as appropriations are in excess of the available supply of water, and each year sees the same story of appropriators upstream ignoring priority rights downstream to take the water for themselves. Central Nebraska, however, has a fine supply of underground water on which to draw for pump irrigation. Whether unlimited use of this supply would result in its exhaustion, I'm not in position to say. The water tables of Grand Island indicate that the last several years have drawn heavily on that supply.

I believe the Government should do whatever is humanly possible to help through the coming winter and spring those farmers that have stayed on their farms. We don't know what next year will bring. It may be another 1915, or it may be a repetition of the unhappy years we have just experienced. But I believe the Government should gamble a bit on 1941, in the hope that a little more encouragement will bring the farmers out of their slough of despond.

Arch W. Jarrell,
Editor, Grand Island Independent.

TESTIMONY OF GLENN A. BRYANT, OF CINCINNATI, OHIO, ASSISTANT VICE PRESIDENT OF THE UNION CENTRAL LIFE INSURANCE CO.; AND B. G. DEWEESE, OF CINCINNATI, OHIO, DIRECTOR OF FARM MANAGEMENT OF THE UNION CENTRAL LIFE INSURANCE CO.

The Chairman. Mr. Bryant and Mr. Deweese. I want to state to you that you have been very patient and very good listeners all of yesterday and today, and we are grateful to you for your interest in this hearing. Undoubtedly you can give us some facts that will be very helpful.

You are Glenn A. Bryant?

Mr. BRYANT. Correct.

The CHAIRMAN. Where is your residence?

Mr. BRYANT. Cincinnati, Ohio; and I am assistant vice president of the Union Central Life Insurance Co.

The CHAIRMAN. Mr. DeWeese is your name?

Mr. DEWEESE. B. G. DeWeese, Cincinnati, Ohio. I am director of farm management for the Union Central Life Insurance Co.

A STATEMENT ON INTERSTATE MIGRATION, BY GLENN A. BRYANT, ASSISTANT VICE PRESIDENT, UNION CENTRAL LIFE INSURANCE CO., AND B. G. DEWEESE, DIRECTOR OF FARM MANAGEMENT, UNION CENTRAL LIFE INSURANCE CO.

1. "Causes of migration of agricultural families and of their inability to establish permanent tenure on the land:"

(*a*) Crop failure caused by drought and poor soil management practices.

(*b*) Too heavy obligations incurred in times of easy credit, which could not be carried with declining income; lack of sufficient financial backing to obtain the proper livestock, equipment, fuel, and seed. Loss of foundation livestock and inability to rebuild herds rapidly.

(*c*) Morale broken, lost pride and self-respect.

(*d*) Poor housing conditions.

(*e*) Too short term of leases under which tenants cannot take proper interest in maintaining or making permanent improvements in land, buildings, fences, or water supply.

(*f*) Better farmers are purchasing more land in order to increase their volume of business caused by low farm prices and too small allotments under Agricultural Adjustment Administration program. Better farmers are purchasing lands to set up their sons and sons-in-law. Due to low farm prices, many owners are returning to operate their lands.

(*g*) Better farmers are forced by low crop prices and allotments to operate more land in order to increase their volume of business so that they can spread their overhead and equipment expenses and maintain their standard of living.

(*h*) Many farmers are not qualified to meet the complicated requirements of successful farm management under changing conditions.

2. "Practical methods of strengthening farm-family tenure on farming units:"

(*a*) Better housing facilities to make homes more attractive and livable. Houses could be placed in good livable and comfortable condition, barns and outbuildings made more comfortable and suitable for livestock. This would be accomplished through some plan such as operates under Federal Housing Administration on city properties. Cost of such improvements to be insured by government.

(*b*) Longer term leases containing provisions for tenant to be reimbursed for any unused portion of permanent improvements and likewise providing for the tenant to reimburse the owner for any damage caused by his negligence or misuse of property.

(*c*) Local taxes that are unreasonably high has been cause of loss of farm homes. This can be remedied by consolidating local governmental units such as counties, townships, and local urban communities. States and Federal aid to school districts similar to Smith-Hughes Vocational Agricultural Act, only on a much more extensive basis.

(*d*) Past and present school curriculums have taught and teach that the famous men have been soldiers, statesmen, industrialists, and financiers and paint the glamor of the cities. It seems that from a long-time viewpoint such changes as are necessary in the rural school textbooks, to show that there have also been great men in agriculture who have labored long and hard to develop and introduce new crops and their uses and new practices. Some of these men, as Wing and Grimm, who developed and spread the use of Grimm alfalfa; Reed, Leaming, and Wallace, on corn; Carlson and Thatcher, on wheat; Burbank, on fruits, vegetables, and flowers; the Mormons, on irrigation; Bennett, on erosion and soil and moisture conservation: Cruickshank, on beef cattle; Hoard, on dairy cattle; Terrell and Martin, on hogs; George Dix, on horses; Murphy, on dairy cattle, sheep, hogs, and crops; and Carver, on uses of farm crops.

In the present-day school curriculum it appears that the grade-school pupil is trained to enter high school and the high-school student is trained so as to enter college. A small percentage of high-school graduates enter colleges, so it seems that the grade- and high-school curriculums should place greater emphasis on training young people to better meet the problems of life. We believe that in rural and small urban schools that the pupil should be taught good farming practices that are applicable to his community; also, methods of marketing, financing, community activities, and their relation to the country as a whole. A much further expansion of 4-H Club work, Future Farmers, and Homemaker clubs among rural boys and girls is needed.

(*e*) A further expansion of demonstrating moisture and soil conserving and other good farm management practices among adult farmers by county agents and the agricultural colleges on a more aggressive basis. This has been started, but more pressure must be put behind the program.

(*f*) An analysis by lending institutions, similar to that made by the Union Central Life Insurance Co. of their individual farm properties and policies adopted toward the stabilizing of land values and elimination of the practice of dumping lands on the market. The practice of dumping lands on the market by certain institutions tends to undermine and destroy equities of the individual owner in the community. The adoption by other lending institutions of a sales program wherein good, worthy farmers may purchase farms on terms that they can meet would assist materially in helping restore farm homes to private ownership.

3. "Sources of migrating farm families and their ultimate destination":

No comments.

4. "Provisions by State and local agencies for relief, education, housing, health, and resettlement of nonresident families in each State and methods of integrating Federal relief with State and local aid":

No comments.

5. "Extent to which the destitute condition of American families is the result of circumstances completely beyond their control":

No comments.

6. "Opportunities for resettling migratory and needy farm families on irrigation projects sponsored by Bureau of Reclamation and on other types of potential farming land where the families may either engage in commercial farming or achieve a self-supporting status":

There seems to be quite an opportunity to resettle many of the farm families in their own State rather than remove them to some distant area. It takes too long a period for families to adjust themselves to new conditions when changing from areas with which they are familiar to an entirely new type of farming area.

It seems obvious to us that instead of transferring farmers from one area to another, their needs might be served best by a properly conducted program for moisture and soil conservation and for proper soil use. Individual farmers, in even the most distressed areas, are making good through practical programs, while many fail and move on. Such a program would call for practical direction by competent personnel, well trained in proven practices applicable to the particular territory. We have cooperated with such a demonstration in the Brown-Marshall soil-conservation district, which was established by the State of South Dakota cooperating with the Soil Conservation Service of the United States Department of Agriculture. During 1937 and 1938 many farms were idle, which furnished nests for grasshoppers. Now most of these farms are occupied and farmers are raising crops. We know that farmers in this and similar districts have been benefited materially.

If as much publicity had been given to better farming and conserving practices as has been given to the plight of the Great Plains area, we believe that fewer people would have left the area.

TESTIMONY OF GLENN A. BRYANT AND B. G. DeWEESE—Resumed

The CHAIRMAN. Now, the committee is interested in your statement, which will be incorporated in the record, and we will just hit the high spots here. The committee is interested in the following quotation from your statement:

Many farmers are not qualified to meet complicated requirements of successful farm management under changing conditions, as a cause of migration of agricultural families.

Would you care to add anything to that above quotation?

Mr. BRYANT. Well, experience has shown, Mr. Chairman, that there are a large percentage of failures in all kinds of activity, and that includes farming as well. There has been in years past, an assumption that a man who failed in almost any other kind of business might enter into farming and make a living, or succeed. This, of course, is an entirely erroneous theory, because unless he has the ability to manage, as perhaps he does not, he will fail in the farming profession as well as any other. Our migrant problem is not a new one. We have always had migration. It is only that it has become exaggerated and distressed, I think, that makes it conspicuous and serious today.

The CHAIRMAN. Yes. Mr. DeWeese, do you agree?

Mr. DEWEESE. Yes, sir.

The CHAIRMAN. It was brought out at the Chicago hearing, through exhibits attached to the statement of Prof. W. A. Murray, of Iowa State College, that insurance companies had more land holdings in Iowa than any other kind of corporation; do you know whether this holds true for the States in the Great Plains region?

Mr. DEWEESE. I cannot answer that, Mr. Chairman.

The CHAIRMAN. Do you know, or do you have any informaion with you, which shows the extent of the land holdings by insurance companies in the Great Plains region?

Mr. DEWEESE. We do not have that available.

The CHAIRMAN. Can you obtain those figures?

Mr. DEWEESE. Yes; I think we can.

The CHAIRMAN. Would you send them to us?

Mr. DEWEESE. Yes, sir.

The CHAIRMAN. To Washington?

Mr. DEWEESE. That is right.

Mr. PARSONS. I have wondered if the insurance companies themselves didn't have some kind of an association that collected all of this data and had it available already in printed form.

Mr. DEWEESE. That information, I believe, is available through the Association of Life Insurance Presidents. I am sure you can get that.

The CHAIRMAN. If you will obtain that for us; our records will not be closed until sometime in November, and I will be glad to incorporate that in the record, because it is very important.

LAND HOLDINGS OF UNION CENTRAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY IN GREAT PLAINS REGION

Do you have any figures available giving the landholdings of your own company in the various States of the Great Plains region?

Mr. DEWEESE. Within the Great Plains region we have approximately 800 farm units, comprising about 200,000 acres of land. Of those farms 98 percent are under lease to residents or adjoining operators.

The Chairman. How did you obtain those lands?

Mr. DeWeese. They were acquired through default in mortgage loans.

Mr. Parsons. Did you foreclose the mortgages out and sell them out under the hammer, or did the owners just give you a deed to them without further cost?

Mr. DeWeese. Mr. Parsons, it has been the policy of our company to go along with the borrower so long as there was any reasonable hope of him being able to pay or meet his obligations. The foreclosures by our company, I think, have been rather low as compared with some others. Many of our folks, when they found they could not meet their obligations, offered a deed to the company, rather than go through a foreclosure procedure.

The Chairman. Have you kept a good many of the owner-operators on the farms after you took them over?

Mr. DeWeese. Yes, quite a majority of those folks. We analyze it this way, Mr. Parsons: If we have a man of good character who, through no fault of his own, has been unfortunate, we will continue to go along with that kind of individual.

Mr. Parsons. And let him still operate the farm?

Mr. DeWeese. That is correct.

Mr. Parsons. That is not only right, but it is good business, isn't it?

Mr. DeWeese. Well, our main objective is to sell farms acquired to private owners, if you will pardon me. We appreciate the difficulties which the farmer has encountered, some of the causes of which do not belong to him, and we are very ready to help him rehabilitate not only his family and his financial status, but his land and buildings, as well, and oftentimes we rent back to the farmer-operator and give him an opportunity, if the farm is not sold, to repurchase that farm. And oftentimes we put in the money necessary to rehabilitate buildings or do other things needed to insure the future success of the sales contract.

Mr. Parsons. How many farms does the Union Central have?

Mr. DeWeese. Approximately 7,000.

Mr. Parsons. Are a number of them out here in the Great Plains region?

Mr. DeWeese. Are you speaking about the small confine there, or all of the Great Plains States?

Mr. Parsons. The Great Plains States.

Mr. DeWeese. Approximately 5,000 of them are within the Great Plains States area.

Mr. Bryant. Comparatively few of them are within this particular section. In other words, our loaning activities, for the most part, lie east of that particular line. [The Great Plains.]

The Chairman. Mr. Bryant, would you care to add anything to other statements in your paper to the effect that migration was or is caused by too many obligations incurred in times of easy credit which could not be carried with declining income?

CAUSE OF LARGE PERCENT OF FARM FAILURES

Mr. Bryant. Our analysis of cases which we have, with thousands of loans, have shown us, rather conclusively, that it wasn't the first mortgage that proved disastrous to the farmer. His difficulties resulted from other obligations—the purchase of too much high-priced land during an inflated period, or usually the extension of his debts at a time when credit was made easy, and perhaps the purchase of more than the necessary amount of machinery, automobiles, and other things in which the expenditure might have been more conservative.

The CHAIRMAN. Have you any suggestions as a remedy for this difficulty?

Mr. BRYANT. Well, a remedy is hard to put into effect. Our people usually adjust themselves to their own needs and conditions. Consequently I think a great many of them who have developed rather unwarranted luxurious ideas in their plan of living, or, in other words, had adopted a mode of living beyond their means, have now regained their foothold to the extent of being more conservative, living more within their income, and should be, as they are doing in many cases, in our experience, recovering, getting their obligations behind them by composition or payment and getting started over again, regaining some of their foundation livestock, getting themselves rehabilitated, reestablished, and on the way back to prosperity.

The CHAIRMAN. In the ultimate disposition of your company's land holdings—of course, that leads into the future, doesn't it?

Mr. BRYANT. Very much so.

The CHAIRMAN. You would sell them if you could?

Mr. BRYANT. Yes, sir. I might say this, Chairman Tolan, the attitude of our company, and I think this holds very true of almost all lending institutions, has been more liberal and generous than is usually understood by the public.

Mr. PARSONS. Particularly the insurance companies?

Mr. BRYANT. Yes; as Mr. DeWeese said, with our own company, we take farms only when there seems to be no other way out. In other words, if there is still a chance, and a man is shooting square with us, and trying to take care of his property, we are going a long way with him, trying to help him keep his farm home.

Mr. PARSONS. Out here where the elements conspire to destroy him there isn't anything you can do about it, or him, either, as far as that is concerned?

Mr. BRYANT. I think that in some cases we have worked a hardship on some borrowers by being overgenerous. In other words, I think that in some cases it would have been better for him, probably, to have called it a day sooner; instead of going on struggling to carry on, it would have enabled him to get started over again sooner.

PROCEDURE AND PRESENT STATUS OF FARM LOANS

Mr. PARSONS. Well, how many farm loans does your company have in America?

Mr. DEWEESE. About 12,000.

Mr. PARSONS. And you have owned 7,000 of them—they are your farms?

Mr. DEWEESE. No; in addition to that we have about 12,000 active farm-mortgage loans.

Mr. Parsons. And all told you have 19,000?

Mr. DeWeese. That is correct.

The Chairman. How many of the 12,000 are in default now?

Mr. DeWeese. Less than 10 percent.

The Chairman. Are you making any new loans?

Mr. DeWeese. We are renewing maturing loans.

The Chairman. What interest are you charging?

Mr. DeWeese. That will range from 4 to 5 percent. On this basis: In some areas there is a customary, established interest rate, and we try to follow general procedure or custom within a community.

Mr. Parsons. Are you carrying these farms on your accounts at the same amount, or lower than before they came in default?

Mr. DeWeese. No, sir. We have adopted the practice of making a very careful analysis of each farm unit as it comes into our real estate account. A selling plan, or in the first instance a management plan, is set up for the handling of that farm, looking into the history for as many years back as we can to determine what the crop rotation was, looking into the future to see what the crop rotation should be in view of past rotations, working out in general a 5-year plan to set under the supervision of our own very well-trained men, and that we try to pass on to the purchaser when we sell the farm. We do not intend to hold these farms any longer than it is necessary to do so, but are marketing them as rapidly as we can under an orderly marketing program.

Mr. Parsons. You have taken some losses, then, on your books?

Mr. DeWeese. We have taken some losses.

Mr. Parsons. In some instances, perhaps, you have made money?

Mr. Bryant. That is right. We pay great attention to our investigation in the particular cases. We analyze each case and develop a selling plan, that should enable an average purchaser of that type of farm to carry on. In other words, we set the interest rate and the annual payment in keeping with the probabilities of the earning power of the farm.

Mr. Parsons. How many years have you had this farm-management division of your company?

Mr. Bryant. A good many, but not to the extent we have now, but we have had it for more than 10 years.

Mr. Parsons. You didn't need it much until the last decade?

Mr. DeWeese. That is about right. The last few years we have developed a rather extensive, and we think a very practical, farm-management set-up.

Mr. Parsons. Were you with the company in some capacity before you were put on this farm-management division, or are you a farm man?

Mr. DeWeese. I was born and raised on a farm and was in the Farm Bureau work for some few years then; after that I was associated with the Federal land bank of Louisville, in their appraisal department, and later I went down to Washington with the Farm Credit Administration, before coming with the Union Central about 5 years ago.

Mr. Parsons. From your experience at your insurance meeting associations, have the other large companies created farm management sections, and acquired competent men to direct it and go out into the field and aid and assist the individual farmers in the management of these farms?

Mr. BRYANT. Practically all of them.

Mr. DEWEESE. I think that generally is true.

Mr. PARSONS. Do you make the contact with those who are not in default?

Mr. BRYANT. We have a program that is carried out by our field organization of visiting a borrower, whether he is delinquent or current, at least twice each year. I think a close relationship should exist between the borrower and the Union Central.

Mr. PARSONS. That is right.

Mr. BRYANT. And if there is something going sour, from one angle or another, our qualified field man can go into the analysis of the farmer's difficulty and help him work out plans at the time, so that he might be able to keep his property.

Mr. PARSONS. Then your field man is paying a big dividend?

Mr. BRYANT. That is right.

Mr. PARSONS. He is paying the farmers dividends, too?

Mr. BRYANT. Yes. They are very carefully selected men, usually men who are raised on the farm, who have had actual farming experience with their fathers, or preferably by themselves, who have obtained an agricultural college education, and have served as county agents or in some such capacity for a few years, to develop their public-relations diplomacy end of it, who have had an opportunity to develop a high degree of farm management and soils knowledge to enable them to pass on to farmers the things we think they need.

Mr. PARSONS. What is the total value of these 7,000 farms you have; that is, the loans that were originally against them?

Mr. DEWEESE. I can't answer that. All I know is the other end of it, Mr. Parsons.

COOPERATION WITH FEDERAL FARM PROGRAM

The CHAIRMAN. This committee has heard some testimony recommending benefit payments under the triple A program be restricted to only small farm operators. What do you gentlemen think of the effect of such a program?

Mr. DEWEESE. Mr. Tolan, we believe in the principle of soil conservation and the provisions of the act. We have cooperated with the Government in every farm program that they have established, chiefly because we felt that they were right in principle.

Mr. PARSONS. Do you share it with the tenant?

Mr. DEWEESE. Pardon me?

Mr. PARSONS. The company shares these benefits with the tenant?

Mr. DEWEESE. Not any more. Up until the act was amended, we would participate in the benefits earned by the farm, until the law was amended limiting the amount payable to multiple land owners. We are still of the same opinion, however, although we may feel that what we have contributed may not be appreciated by folks who put a limiting factor on the amount that might be earned by individuals or one multiple landowner; yet, we haven't lost faith in it because they are not paying us. We consider that our tenants will be benefited by it, and out of the constructive program we have been working on with our tenants we likewise will be benefited. The income of our company from farms last year was 39 percent, not counting Government payments, greater than the previous year. Even though we may be, as we think, discriminated against by the Government program, yet, through better management practices, we are able to increase our total income from our properties.

Mr. Parsons. Well, I can see, in your case there, each individual farm that you own now is a unit. It would be in the program if the man owned it. If you were going out just buying up the land as a corporation, as a renter, I probably wouldn't want to pay you.

Mr. DeWeese. That is right.

Mr. Parsons. But you are not in that business. You are in this business to try to get rid of those farms. You don't want them, do you?

Mr. DeWeese. Not at all.

Mr. Bryant. Insofar as that particular feature of the Government program is concerned—if the intention was to secure reduction in crop acres——

Mr. Parsons (interposing). That was the original intent.

Mr. Bryant. Then it seems to me you are overlooking quite a big thing, because a corporation such as ours, having a large acreage under control, bound by ownership and through contract with our borrowers, are in a position to encourage and control far more than many hundreds of individuals would be, and we can lend cooperation to the program and have lent cooperation to the program, I think, more extensively and wholeheartedly than many individuals.

Mr. Parsons. And you have always shared with your tenants?

Mr. Bryant. We have tried to make it possible, even to the extent of loans, to enable the tenant to participate and enjoy the benefits of the Government program.

Mr. DeWeese. That is right.

Mr. Bryant. Even though the acreage might more profitably be devoted to other crops for our purposes.

Mr. DeWeese. Mr. Parsons, our lease requires compliance with the Agricultural Adjustment Act. We feel that that is a sound program. Our farms are all operated by tenants. We do not do any corporate or "suitcase" farming at all, because we do not believe in that procedure. We believe that the farm homes of this country should be owned and operated by resident operators.

Mr. Parsons. Yes; if the insurance companies acquired all the lands on which they have loans, it wouldn't be a very prosperous country to live in; your own company would eventually, in the end, fall with it?

Mr. Bryant. We know that the stability of local communities is dependent on ownership of the farms they operate, and naturally you cannot have the same stability in a tenant-operated territory that you can in an owner-operated territory.

Mr. Parsons. With respect to most of these farms you have acquired, did you make those loans during the inflation period, just before it, during it, or following it?

RENTING OF COMPANY-OWNED LAND TO TENANTS

Mr. **Bryant**. Our mortgages through this area have been made through the years from about 1873. In other words, we pioneered in the farm-loan business and have loaned throughout this area for all this period, during which time we enjoyed the finest kind of experience so far as repayment was concerned; we ran with no trouble many, many years, with a slight interruption, for instance, in 1893, in which there was some delinquency, but, generally speaking, we ran practically all those years up to this depression period with practically no delinquencies and very few acquirements.

Mr. **Parsons**. Well, Mr. DeWeese, your statement contains a reference to loss of foundation livestock and inability to rebuild herds rapidly as a cause of migration. What is your company's attitude toward lending money to capable farmers for livestock?

Mr. **DeWeese**. Before the Farm Security Administration was established in this Great Plains area we would advance funds for the purchase of seed and fuel and some livestock. Since then we have rather gone out of the picture, because they (Farm Security Administration) have taken over that, and we are not finding a need for our own financing. We have now under consideration several very fine cattle people in this area whom we may assist; that is, where a man is of good character and has proved that he can carry out a livestock program we expect to assist him in getting reestablished on a sound basis.

Mr. **Parsons**. How fast a turn-over do you have on tenants?

Mr. **DeWeese**. That is pretty difficult to say. I would say that that will vary by areas.

Mr. **Bryant**. It's rather small.

Mr. **Parsons**. If you have the right kind of man, you want to keep him?

Mr. **Bryant**. We endeavor, in the first instance, to select a tenant who can carry on, naturally, preferably the man who has the proper balance of livestock for the unit we rent him and who has some possibilities of becoming the owner of the farm he occupies.

Mr. **Parsons**. Do you lease to him year by year, with the provision that, if you sell the farm, your lease is null and void, or will you give him some tenure of 3, 5, or 10 years?

Mr. **Bryant**. Because of our desire to sell our properties, we, in fact, lease only from year to year, but in practice we have an understanding with our tenants that if the farms are not sold they will continue to live on them.

Mr. **Parsons**. In what percentage of your cases do you rent your land back to the individual who mortgaged it?

Mr. **Bryant**. That is hard to estimate, but I would say that probably 30 to 40 percent, at least—possibly 50.

Mr. **Parsons**. And of those cases in which you do that, do most of the arrangements prove to be satisfactory?

Mr. **Bryant**. As a whole, yes. Occasionally there does develop a relationship that is not quite what it should be; sometimes the former owner has difficulty in forgetting that he is not still the owner. But, generally speaking, we have had the finest kind of cooperation and have carried through with them.

RECOMMENDATIONS

CONSOLIDATION OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Mr. **Parsons**. Mr. Bryant, you mention consolidation of local governmental units as a means of lowering local taxes, which would be a way of strengthening farm tenure on farming units.

Mr. **Bryant**. My view is that there is very excessive waste in county personnel, and in view of the transportation facilities and good roads at the present time, an area, for instance, of four counties can be handled as readily, and more readily in fact, than one small county might have been handled years ago. I think that it would be very desirable to consolidate many of these counties. However, I appreciate that this view is somewhat idealistic and would probably meet with much opposition from a political standpoint.

The **Chairman**. Well, I have my congressional district in California—the Piedmont, Murphy, Oakland district—seven counties there, and that duplication certainly is tremendous.

Mr. **Bryant**. Yes.

The **Chairman**. But you can't get them to vote for consolidation; you can't do it.

Mr. **Bryant**. That is right.

The **Chairman**. Now, I was much interested in an article I read the other day, and I would like to ask you gentlemen as to its correctness. It purported to be a report from different insurance companies. The article stated, anyway, that—take at random a group of persons who had arrived at the age of 25, and when they arrived at the age of 65, 56 were living on their relatives or on charity, 34 were dead—that is 90—five were working, four were well-to-do, and one rich.

Mr. **DeWeese**. According to mortality records.

The **Chairman**. It rather staggered me to think that out, and time comes along and takes its toll.

Mr. **Bryant**. I think that is probably quite correct.

The **Chairman**. Well, it was an answer to a question in the Washington Post. There it is for you—56.

Mr. **Bryant**. Well, we have naturally, in our experience, as you said before, the opportunity to study a great many human problems, and of course each one of these delinquent cases is a human problem. Our objective is to attempt to rehabilitate.

The **Chairman**. And right there, Mr. Bryant, in years gone by it used to be—and it was done—considered somewhat practical to foreclose and strike a sharp bargain, but that practice, especially in insurance companies, has disappeared; isn't that true?

Mr. **Bryant**. Positively and definitely. The facts will overwhelmingly convince anyone investigating that the insurance companies, as a whole, have been very, very generous and lenient in the handling of their borrowers.

The **Chairman**. Well, gentlemen, I certainly would like to continue with you, but we have a couple more witnesses. We are trying to finish before noon.

GOVERNMENT REHABILITATION OF UNTENABLE FARM BUILDINGS

Mr. BRYANT. There is just one point I would like to make, if I may, with reference to the possibility of helping to stay this migration movement. Now, we have two problems, as I see it: First, the cure of what you now have, and more important, the prevention of further expansion of this same condition, and perhaps a permanent cure for it in the future. Many farm families have moved off farms because their buildings became untenable, and because they did not have the facilities with which to rehabilitate those buildings and make them livable. My thought is that there is a great field for going in there and giving assistance of some nature, if it can be advanced by some of the Government agencies, and rehabilitate those buildings and make them real homes, so that the farmer and his family will be more contented and proud of his home and wish to remain there.

The CHAIRMAN. Thank you very much.

TESTIMONY OF MRS. ROY DYER, OF LINCOLN, NEBR.

Mr. CURTIS. You are Mrs. Roy Dyer?

Mrs. DYER. Yes; I am.

Mr. CURTIS. And you are now residing in Lincoln?

Mrs. DYER. Yes; I am.

Mr. CURTIS. How old are you, Mrs. Dyer?

Mrs. DYER. Thirty-four.

Mr. CURTIS. Where were you born?

Mrs. DYER. In Waverly, Nebr.

Mr. CURTIS. When were you married?

Mrs. DYER. In 1923.

Mr. CURTIS. What was your age when you married?

Mrs. DYER. Seventeen.

Mr. CURTIS. Where have you and your husband lived most of the time during your married life?

Mrs. DYER. Mostly in Nebraska.

Mr. CURTIS. What places?

Mrs. DYER. Lincoln.

Mr. CURTIS. What education have you had?

Mrs. DYER. Tenth grade.

Mr. CURTIS. And your husband?

Mrs. DYER. About the same.

Mr. CURTIS. You have two children?

Mrs. DYER. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. How old is your son?

Mrs. DYER. Twelve.

Mr. CURTIS. And your daughter?

Mrs. DYER. Sixteen.

Mr. CURTIS. What kind of work does your husband do?

Mrs. DYER. Construction work.

Mr. CURTIS. What type of construction?

Mrs. DYER. Well, he is a caterpillar-tractor driver; he does road work, anything in the line of road equipment.

Mr. CURTIS. Heavy dirt-moving machinery?

Mrs. Dyer. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. Has he had steady work?

Mrs. Dyer. Well, no; he hasn't. We were on W. P. A., and when we got off that, we didn't want to go on direct relief. We left and went to Scottsbluff, Nebr., on June 27, last year, and picked potatoes there—the four of us. We were there about a month and a half or 2 months, and then we went to Idaho and picked potatoes.

Mr. Curtis. How much money did you make picking potatoes?

Mrs. Dyer. Six cents a bushel.

Mr. Curtis. Six cents a bushel. The whole family picked potatoes?

Mrs. Dyer. Well, the children would shake vines and we would pick them.

Mr. Curtis. Were they in school?

Mrs. Dyer. Not then; it hadn't started.

Mr. Curtis. How many bushels could the family pick in a day?

Mrs. Dyer. From an average of 100 to 300 bushels a day.

Mr. Curtis. All the way from $6 to $18 a day?

Mrs. Dyer. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. In addition to that you got a shack to live in, didn't you?

Mrs. Dyer. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. How large a building was that?

Mrs. Dyer. Three rooms. The one we had was three rooms.

Mr. Curtis. That was one the beet tenders had used previously?

Mrs. Dyer. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. Where did you go then?

Mrs. Dyer. To Idaho.

Mr. Curtis. How did you go?

Mrs. Dyer. With a trailer house and our car.

Mr. Curtis. Did you own a trailer when you left here?

Mrs. Dyer. No; we had furniture and took it out to Scottsbluff, intending to live there, but we didn't find work enough, so we traded the furniture, even, for the trailer house, and it was real good.

Mr. Curtis. Had you saved any money in Scottsbluff?

Mrs. Dyer. Well, we saved some; yes.

Mr. Curtis. Did you find work in Idaho?

Mrs. Dyer. Yes; we did.

Mr. Curtis. Did you do as well there as in Nebraska?

Mrs. Dyer. No; we didn't. In Idaho there is a different way of picking potatoes, and more difficult.

Mr. Curtis. How long did you stay in Idaho?

Mrs. Dyer. About 3 weeks.

Mr. Curtis. Then where did you go?

Mrs. Dyer. To Washington.

Mr. Curtis. What did you do in Washington?

Mrs. Dyer. Picked peaches and apples.

Mr. Curtis. Did you find plenty of work?

Mrs. Dyer. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. How long did you stay?

Mrs. Dyer. A month and a half or 2 months.

Mr. Curtis. Did you live in this trailer all this time?

Mrs. DYER. Yes; we did.

Mr. CURTIS. At what place in Washington?

Mrs. DYER. Well, in the Yakima Valley. It was a small town—let's see—I forget the town's name just now.

Mr. CURTIS. Where did you go from there?

Mrs. DYER. To Oregon.

Mr. CURTIS. And then where?

Mrs. DYER. Well, we picked hops there in Oregon and done real good, and went down to California from there, and when we finished up in Oregon we had about $125 saved up over our expenses that we had, for living expenses. We went from there on down to California, to Bakersfield Pass, and we had difficulty with our car; the transmission and all tore out, and it cost us $68 to have that fixed, but we finally went down around Los Angeles County. Around there was where we lived.

Mr. CURTIS. How long did you stay down there, Mrs. Dyer?

Mrs. DYER. From December, the 12th day of December, until in March.

Mr. CURTIS. Did all four of you work?

Mrs. DYER. No; we didn't; all four of us didn't work in California, just the two of us; my husband picked some oranges, and we picked a few potatoes, there in California.

Mr. CURTIS. Did you have work most of the time in California?

Mrs. DYER. No; not in California.

Mr. CURTIS. Where did you go then?

Mrs. DYER. We were going to stay there, but we run out of funds, so after we were there most of the time, we asked for relief, and they sent us back to Nebraska. In 4 hours' time they sent a telegram back here and we was sent back here to our residence.

Mr. CURTIS. What did they say in that telegram?

Mrs. DYER. They said we was residents of Nebraska all our lives and belonged back here; we could have gotten jobs; I had one promised, sorting oranges in a packing company, but the farmers were holding up the crop on account of the Texas freeze; it wouldn't have been for 2 weeks, and if we could have gotten help there for 2 weeks we could have made it.

Mr. CURTIS. You wanted to stay there?

Mrs. DYER. Yes; we did.

Mr. CURTIS. But Nebraska didn't refuse you or refuse entrance?

Mrs. DYER. No.

Mr. CURTIS. Who paid the expenses back here?

Mrs. DYER. California.

Mr. CURTIS. The committee has run into a number of cases where States would not let the people reenter. That is what has caused some of the difficulty about this investigation.

Does Mr. Dyer have work since he got back, then, to Lincoln?

Mrs. DYER. Yes. We arrived here and went to the relief right after we came; about 2 weeks we made it on our own after we arrived here, and we went down to the relief office, and in the meantime he got private employment from A. T. Stewart, construction, and worked until in June.

Mr. CURTIS. What is he doing now?

Mrs. DYER. Well, he was supposed to get a steady job today. We have been on direct relief.

Mr. CURTIS. How long?

Mrs. DYER. Just a month.

Mr. CURTIS. And he has a job in prospect now?

Mrs. DYER. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. Do you still have your trailer?

Mrs. DYER. No; we don't. We sold the trailer to buy furniture and rent a house and buy food, after we arrived here.

Mr. CURTIS. If he gets this permanent job, do you plan to stay here or are you going to start out on another trip?

Mrs. DYER. I don't know. It depends on how much he makes. If he makes enough so that we can start out, why we would rather live in Oregon than any place that we have struck yet.

Mr. CURTIS. Now, in your tours around all these places, did you find people who wouldn't get work?

Mrs. DYER. Well, no; we run across one family that I think weren't looking for work, more than anything else.

Mr. CURTIS. What were they looking for, a migratory camp?

Mrs. DYER. More than likely, but all we ran across, they seemed to be working, and had convenient places to stay and was getting along just fine.

Mr. CURTIS. Yes. We thank you for your statement.

TESTIMONY OF ALFRED R. BARNES, CHAIRMAN OF THE SOUTH DAKOTA AGRICULTURAL CONSERVATION COMMITTEE

Mr. PARSONS. State your name, please.

Mr. BARNES. Alfred R. Barnes, chairman of the South Dakota State Agricultural Conservation Committee.

Mr. PARSONS. We have been very much interested in your prepared statement, Mr. Barnes, which we have all read carefully. If you want to give the committee your statement to augment the record, you will have unanimous consent to incorporate it into the record of the hearing.

(The statement referred to is as follows:)

STATEMENT BY ALFRED R. BARNES, CHAIRMAN, SOUTH DAKOTA AGRICULTURAL CONSERVATION COMMITTEE

A STATEMENT ON THE PRACTICAL METHODS OF STRENGTHENING FARM FAMILY TENURE

The farm-tenancy question is one of the most serious problems confronting agriculture at the present time. There has been a steady increase in tenancy from 1880 to the present time. In 1880 there were 4 percent of the farmers in South Dakota living on rented farms while in 1940 it is anticipated that the Federal census will show that over 50 percent of the farmers in the State are tenants. There seem to be two schools of thought relative to land tenure; one favors ownerships and the other believes that landlords whether they be public or private, can rent to farmers with equally good results. We all agree on the one point that farmers should have permanent tenure, whether it be through ownership or through tenantry. With the present tenure arrangements there are in the State, with the leases running from 1 to 5 years, and the large majority of these being 1-year leases, and the fact that over one-half of our farmers are tenants, there seems to be a large field in which we should employ some constructive action. If some line of procedure is not worked out which will arrest or rather retard the trend of tenancy in South Dakota, we can look forward to the time, in the not too far distant future, when practically all of our farmers will be tenants. It seems advisable to bring out a few of the practices on land tenure which have a direct bearing on this important problem.

Practically all of the land that is now rented falls into two classes. First: Public lands, that is, land which is now owned by counties, State, and Federal land bank. Second: Land that is held by individual and multiple landowners.

The public lands are leased for a period of 1 year in most instances, the exception being the public-school lands and certain county lands which have a 5-year lease period. The counties west of the Missouri River are acquiring a large number of acres through tax title, and, with this increasing ownership on the part of the county, will also come an increasing leasing problem. There has never been an organized plan or procedure established for protecting the soil or the native grasses prior to the triple-A program. Individual farmers have leased this land and have not only depleted the soil, but in many cases, have ruined the grass covering through overgrazing. It would appear that if land tenure is to be more permanent, with the thought in mind of conserving the soil and natural grasses, that we must have a long-term lease with a regular crop-rotation plan involved. The rural credit is one of the largest public landowners in the State, but is handicapped from making a long-term lease in view of the fact State laws do not so permit. Most of the leases are either for cash or share of the crop.

Multiple landowners lease for a period of 1 year, in most instances, and the rental basis is a share of the crop and cash for the pasture land. With this basis for leasing, there has been a natural tendency toward cash crops and smaller pasture acreages. This system has, of course, depleted the soil and ruined many pastures, and has made the soil a ready breeding ground for noxious weeds, and as a result, we find many of the good farms in South Dakota badly polluted with such detrimental weeds as creeping Jennie.

Due to conflicting ideas where a livestock program is wanted and needed by the tenant on one side and a cash crop on the other, it will be very difficult to formulate a land-leasing policy which will be agreeable to both the landlord and the tenant until definite leasing arrangements are developed. It is natural for a landowner to either want a share of the cash crop or cash rent for the reason that it is easier to keep a record of operations on the farm and to make a division of the crops. On the other hand, the farmer with a livestock set-up is more interested in feed, forage, and pasture, and until the landlord and the tenant get together on an equitable basis for a lease, there will always be this difference of opinion, which in many cases has worked to the detriment of both the landlord and the tenant.

It has been suggested that more attention be given to a rotation system where livestock will be an asset, not only to the tenant but to the landlord as well.

For a good many generations taxes have fallen largely on real estate, with the result, that in many sections of South Dakota at the present time, it is cheaper to rent land than to own it. This unfortunate situation will never help in solving the tenant problem. In practically every phase of human life, we perfect our procedure to meet the demands that natural changes, higher standards, and the better living of each succeeding generations require. The trend of the times has, however, brought no such improved change in our land-tax structure, and we find it has fundamentally remained the same since statehood.

The Agricultural Adjustment Administration, through its program, is helping to build up the farms and ranges through soil-building practices and deferred grazing.

Under the triple A range program approximately 9,000 dams have been built in western South Dakota in the past 3 years. However, due to the short term leases on such land a good many operators have failed to take advantage of the conservation practices, especially water development. If an operator did protect his grass and build dams on such land, it was apparent that someone else would overbid him when the leases were put up for bid the coming year. He would also be forced to pay much more than a fair rental to protect his grass and other improvements he had made. In other words, he would be penalized for practicing conservation rather than rewarded.

In 1939 many operators were unable to take advantage of the loan program due to the fact they were unable to get consent of storage beyond the current year and were forced to liquidate on a market that was already overburdened.

In 1940 the range program and farm program were combined in 38 counties in South Dakota thinking that possibly through a considerable portion of this area benefit payments in the past had been encouraging cash grain farming in that area that never was adapted to this type of farming. It was the hope of the ranchers and the farmers in that area who suggested that the two programs be combined that there would be only one allowance and that allowance could be used to encourage practices, such as the seeding of perennial grasses and water development, and discourage practices which were not adapted for that area. It was also recommended and put into the 1940 program that whatever practices the operators decided to carry out on their respective ranches must have prior approval of the county committee of their respective counties. It simply meant that by combining the two programs, the people of this area would be able to earn as large a payment as they had in the past and at the same time there would be a possibility of reducing wheat acreage allotments and increasing the payment on practices which would contribute to the production of livestock.

The ever-normal granary undoubtedly has a different and more vital meaning to the Great Plains farmer than to the farmers in any other area, since in years when there are good crops in the Great Plains area usually other areas of the country have good crops. Consequently when the Great Plains farmer has a good crop, the market price is at its lowest and in those years of poor crops, the Great Plains farmer usually finds the market price of his commodity at its highest level. History bears out the fact that in the Great Plains area a few years of good crops are always followed by a number of years of poor crops. The commodity loan program makes it possible for the Great Plains farmer to carry over those good crops in order that he will have livestock feed and seed in the years of failure.

In the past, prior to the time when the Agricultural Adjustment Administration made commodity loans available to farmers, this farmer had sold his crops on a Chicago price, less freight. In the years of crop failure he had to borrow money to purchase seed and feed and he paid a price based on Chicago market plus freight. It has been recognized for a good many years, that it is impossible for people who are dependent entirely on cash crops to be self-supporting in the Great Plains area over a period of years. The ever-normal granary feature of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration program is making it possible for people in this area to build up herds of livestock and be in a position to carry them over during the lean years, as they have been able to hold the grain produced in years of good crops on their farms, or in their areas.

Another feature of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration program which has helped considerably in stabalizing farm income is crop insurance. The farmer can now set aside a certain number of bushels per acre as premium each year and in those years when he has crop failures the crop insurance corporation will draw from reserves (available through the payment of premiums by farmers), making it possible for the operator to purchase seed and pay current expenses for those years in which he loses his crop. This eliminates the necessity of reverting to seed loans which have been extremely necessary in the past in order that farmers may be able to plant their crops following years of drought.

The crop insurance feature will not eliminate entirely the necessity of continuing to have seed loans available to farmers because of the fact that at the present time it covers only one commodity, namely, wheat. But this is a definite start in the right direction to make it possible for the farmer to set aside some of the surplus of the good years as protection in the poor years. In the past it has been impossible for the average Great Plains farmer to plan his operations for more than 1 year at a time. With the commodity loan ever-normal granary feature and crop insurance on wheat, he is in a position to plan his operations on a somewhat longer period of time. If the people in the Great Plains area can ever expect to be self-supporting, it can only be brought about by making it possible for them to plan their operations over a long-time basis.

I have attempted to point out a few of the problems to be solved in strengthening the farm tenure on farming units in the Great Plains area.

In conclusion I would like to point out a few of the things the Agricultural Adjustment Administration program has accomplished so far to lessen the migration of people in the Great Plains area and to strengthen the tenure of farming units in this area.

1. Eighty percent of the businessmen as well as the farm and ranch operators in this area will tell you they would not be there if it were not for the benefit payments made under the Agricultural Adjustment Administration program. With an indicated migration as great as this it would be impossible to measure the catastrophe that would have occurred were it not for the Agricultural Adjustment Administration.
2. The Agricultural Adjustment Administration has definitely pointed out the necessity for longer-time leases and due to this a recent law has been passed in this State which will do considerable to encourage long-time leases on county-owned land.
3. A number of the county agricultural adjustment administration committees are working closely with the county commissioners in encouraging the blocking off of county-owned land into a more stable and, what is believed to be, a more nearly family sized unit.
4. The numerous dams built under the Agricultural Adjustment Administration program have done a great deal to lessen the effect of water shortage in the case of serious drought.
5. The Agricultural Adjustment Administration has done a great deal to encourage the planting of drought-resistant feeds—for example, in the State of South Dakota, alone, the acreage of sorghum has increased from approximately 40,000 acres in 1933 to 1,500,000 acres in 1939.

There are a number of other practices, such as the seeding of perennial grasses and the restoring of 900,000 acres of cropland to grassland, that the Agricultural Adjustment Administration has directly accomplished which might be pointed out. However, in this brief, I have attempted to point out only the major practices, methods of farming, and trends toward more permanent tenure in leasing agreements which the Agricultural Adjustment Administration has encouraged.

TESTIMONY OF ALFRED R. BARNES—Resumed

Mr. PARSONS. Your statement indicates that the 1940 census will show that 50 percent of the farmers in your State are tenants. And you state further that short-term leases constitute a serious problem. Will you elaborate on that?

SHORT-TERM LEASES HANDICAP TO CONSERVATION PROGRAM

Mr. BARNES. In our State we presume that about 50 percent of our farms are owned by multiple land owners, most of them on a 1-year lease. It has been a serious handicap to the triple-A program, due to the fact that it has discouraged rather than encouraged, conservation. In the range area, where we have built some 9,000 dams, where the boys are only able to get a 1-year lease, they feel if they go on there and develop water conservation, they will be put on the block next year, and somebody is going to overbid them.

Mr. PARSONS. They have only a 1-year lease throughout this State, mostly?

EVER-NORMAL GRANARY PLAN

Mr. Barnes. Yes. And under the ever-normal granary plan, most of their tenants have a 1-year lease, and they are unable to get consent of storage; and I believe the ever-normal granary has been, probably, the dream of every South Dakota farmer. When we get a crop, everybody has a crop. In the past, we were on the Chicago price, less freight; next year we are buying back on a Chicago price, plus freight. If we could carry the crops over, here, it certainly would be a big step toward stability. With a 1-year lease these farmers are not able to take advantage of farm storage on these crops.

In one county, with 300,000 acres, they called in from some 26 ranches and asked time and time again if we couldn't develop something that would give those farmers permission for longer leases. We made a deal with the farmer; the commissioners could block their farm, go out and say, "We will give you a 5-year lease on it." We kept from getting it put on the auction block every year. That was just with county land.

Mr. Parsons. The land reverts to the county, not to the State?

Mr. Barnes. Yes; and it gives the county commissioners that provision, to block it up and give them a 5-year lease on it. On the rural credits, we own 6,000 farms; we haven't been able to do much with them. It is 1-year-lease land.

Mr. Curtis. What is this?

Mr. Barnes. An agency set up through the State; long-term mortgages to the farmer.

Mr. Parsons. Since this is a governmental agency, it should be cooperating. Mr. Barnes, now——

Mr. Barnes (interposing). They are trying to unload this land as fast as possible.

Mr. Parsons. Mr. Barnes, you get about one crop in 3 years?

Mr. Barnes. That is right. The point I want to make is, what broke me farming. I came out in the Great Plains area and spent some 15 years out here. I would borrow money from the seed-loan people at a dollar a bushel, hauling it back the next fall and trying to pay the seed loan off on 10- or 20-cent barley and corn. We feel the ever-normal granary, through crop control and crop insurance, can stabilize prices.

Mr. Curtis. What you are trying to plan there is that if this big crop that you have once out of 3 years could be retained in the region, to save the expense of shipping it out, and shipping it back in the years when you don't have it, there would be a great saving to you people there?

Mr. Barnes. The point I want to make is this—in 1933 I sold my grain for 12 cents a bushel. I had to meet my bills; and 14 months later I bought that grain back at a dollar a bushel. If I could have gotten a 12-cent loan I could have kept that on the farm and bought it back the next year at 12 cents a bushel. We have gone through that time and time again.

Mr. Curtis. How many acres do you operate?

Mr. Barnes. Three hundred and twenty.

HOW GOVERNMENT FARM PROGRAM HAS AIDED SOUTH DAKOTA FARMERS

Mr. PARSONS. What do you think of the farm program combination, the entire farm program of the last 7 years?

Mr. BARNES. You mean——

Mr. PARSONS (interposing). Beginning with the triple A, the Soil Conservation, and the Farm Security: Have their programs been of aid and assistance to you in South Dakota?

Mr. BARNES. Without them we wouldn't have a farmer left in a good many counties, on account of the grasshoppers and drought; they just couldn't have stayed.

Mr. PARSONS. I would like to have your comment upon that.

Mr. BARNES. In Corson County, the State's greatest movement being in that county, in 1933 the cropland comprised 355,000 acres; in 1940, through the conservation program, we cut it down to 299,000 acres, which meant that 56,000 acres had been restored to grassland. I might elaborate a little on that. I think it is very important. It is a very fine record for that county. The total soil-depleting allotment for 1940 was 169,000 acres. The ratio of the total soil-depleting allotment to cropland was 56 percent, and yet the participation was approximately 99 percent. If they cut the wheat planting down—the farmer comes in, and certainly he knows this is not a wheat area, but he wants to have his share of the appropriation and benefit payments, so through the farmers and ranchers we combined the program and built up the payments on range conservation. So we cut down the crops of wheat, and so forth.

Mr. PARSONS. How does that range allotment work out? How much do you get paid for leaving it in grass—for an entire year or just certain months of the year?

Mr. BARNES. Up to September 1. It must be deferred until September 1. The charge has been made, I understand, that the triple A program was making a large farmer larger and a small one smaller. There will be a lot of that under the $10,000 limitation. The $10,000 limitation has worked, I think, right against what Congress was thinking of when they put that in, in our State. We have 55 percent of our people on multiple-owned farms, and it is being reflected right back to the tenant, because the multiple owner should get his share of the payment. Now, in my own estimation, he is making a sacrifice, the multiple owner is making a sacrifice on each individual farm, and if he is he should be entitled to his share of the payment. Consequently, if they don't get their share, their payment, it is being reflected back to the tenant's operation. I think there should be a provision whereby that would be tied down to $5,000, and that limit to all farms to be exempt, unless the landowner had received over 50 percent of the crop, which would stop this "suitcase" farmer from going down and taking 10 or 15 farms.

Mr. PARSONS. You would put it on the basis of a 50–50 proposition, that the fellow tilling the land should have at least half the benefits, so that the "suitcase" farmer or big rancher couldn't, as we term it in southern Illinois, "hog" all of the benefit payments?

Mr. BARNES. Yes; up to $5,000. But there is one thing I don't think has been cleared up here; that is, crowding the small farmer out. Now, as I pointed out, the units in our State have been too small. Well, we all recognize that fact. So in my own estimation, as I analyze it, I think we have encouraged bigger units there; in 95 percent of the cases that has been a healthy situation. In the State of South Dakota, the other 5 percent—maybe it has gone a lot too far, but before we make a payment we go in there and investigate that land, and if it develops that the rancher has picked up land, and he didn't have any last year, and it is land that he has leased or repossessed, we square it. One rancher went out there, and he rented section after section, and the county wrote him that he probably wouldn't get any payments, if he kept those tactics up, and he got about $3,200, but in the fall they checked up on him and found he had leased this land from some operator, and they wouldn't pay him. In a situation like that, that land is ruled out, and no payment is made on it.

Mr. Parsons. Coming over on the train, we heard some men talking on the train, and one of them made the observation that the ranchers out in this area and the western area were receiving huge benefits of $1,200 and $2,000 and $5,000, and one of them said $10,000, because they would keep stock off of a certain range of land for so many months, and that that didn't change the fellow's operation at all, and that that was just a gift out of the Federal Treasury to this individual. Do you know of any such condition existing like that?

Mr. Barnes. Well, we don't have any operators of that size. They might have them in the sand hills of Nebraska, but we set up an allowance, and they can only earn 50 percent of their allowance through this practice, and the rest of it they have to earn through other practices, building dams and things like that. And when you move dirt and build dams, you are earning it. So they have to earn their money. It is one control of that to defer grazing—where he might earn 50 percent of his allowance. I think there are possibly a few cases—5 percent, perhaps, where it's gone too far. It has been discussed that $3,000 for one operator or individual ought to be scaled off, after you reach $2,000 or 2,000 acres, or something like that.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Mr. Parsons. Have you any suggestions to make to this committee with reference to preventing the future migration of agricultural operators and tenants; in other words, tying them to the soil? And do you have any suggestions to make that might help us on this agricultural program? After all, we are Members of Congress, and we are pleased to have any suggestions anyone may make with reference to the farm program as a whole, in addition to this migrant situation.

Mr. Barnes. It is our opinion that a study in some areas of the Great Plains region would be helpful. We know a number of studies have been made, but that the results have not been made available. The point I am making is that I can go out in this area and point out to these boys, "Now, you know this isn't a wheat area." A man came over and asked me what kind of land it was, and I said, "It just isn't a wheat area." He wanted to know how I could prove that. I would like to have an income study made over 10 years, and show that it isn't a wheat area, and the income would be greater from grass than from crop land. If those studies have been made, they have never been put forth. It seems to me that when those studies are made they seem to be afraid to put them out to the public. Here is a rural credit concern which would like to sell a farm for $3,000, and if the facts were pointed out, it wouldn't be worth $300. So that is the only point I would have in furthering the triple A program.

Mr. PARSONS. Then you would suggest the diffusion of more exact knowledge of the actual practical farming operations, so it could go out to the people?

Mr. BARNES. That is right.

Mr. PARSONS. And adjust their rotation of crops and the use of other crops where it isn't possible in certain areas, one year after another, to produce them?

Mr. BARNES. That is right. I might bring out one more point here. We have increased forage crops in South Dakota 12 times, which has materially increased the production of livestock—12 times, in fact, since the triple A became effective.

Mr. PARSONS. And without that, if you had still been back to small grains, every farmer would have been off this farm?

Mr. BARNES. That is right. That is very different.

Mr. PARSONS. So you agree with the program that the Farm Security is fostering here in Nebraska, through which they encourage changing from the cash grains to drought-resistant fodder crops?

Mr. BARNES. That is right. We have worked to get into livestock and more diversified farming, and to repeat again, to get away from wheat.

Mr. PARSONS. Well, your statement has been very good. We are glad to have had you come down as practical operator and as a man who is on the Conservation Committee studying the thing first hand for the problems of the entire State.

The CHAIRMAN. Thank you, Mr. Barnes.

Mr. CURTIS. I offer at this time a statement, Farm Migration and the Triple A, in connection with the testimony of Mr. Barnes.

The statement referred to was identified as an exhibit and appears as follows:

FARM MIGRATION AND THE TRIPLE A

The triple A has encouraged the following practices to be carried out which tend to decrease farm migration in South Dakota:

1. Built approximately 9,000 dams.
2. Emphasized the necessity for long-term leases with the result that recently a State law has been passed which makes it possible to lease county-owned land on a long-term basis.
3. In Corson County, the cropland in 1933 was 355,000 acres; in 1940 the cropland was reduced to 299,000 acres, which means that 56,000 acres of cropland had been restored to permanent grassland. The total soil-depleting allotment for 1940 was 169,000 acres. The ratio of the total soil-depleting allotment to cropland was 56 percent and yet the participation was approximately 99 percent.
4. Encouraged forage crops. In 1933 there were approximately 125,000 acres of cane and sorghum seeded in South Dakota; in 1939 the acreage had

increased to 1,462,000 acres, which tends to stabilize and encourage the production of livestock.

5. Paid out approximately $16,000,000 per year to farmers in South Dakota, increasing their income and thus tending to decrease migration.

We believe that the triple A could be strengthened by Federal and State agencies setting up a definite policy of long-term leases and an educational program through multiple landowners and individual owners. The triple A would be much more effective if the farming units were stable. Long-term leases would also give the operators an opportunity to carry out the features of the ever-normal granary and enable them to have an adequate supply of grain through the drought years.

There has been considerable discussion about seed loans; many people advocate that the seed loans should be paid back in kind rather than cash. It is our opinion that if the ever-normal granary, crop control, and crop insurance programs function as Congress intended them to they will definitely stabilize prices of farm commodities, eliminating the necessity of paying seed loans in cash.

The triple A is an action agency and the progress in the improvement and development of the triple A program will depend largely on the availability of the results of studies made in the past and results and studies that will be made in the future.

It is our opinion that a study of income in some areas of the Great Plains region would definitely point out a greater net income per acre on grassland than on a per-acre basis of cropland, over a 10-year period. We know a number of studies have been made but the results have not been available to the action agencies and the operators.

Mr. Curtis. I also wish to offer two letters from Mr. Robert D. Lusk to the committee. Mr. Lusk is the editor and publisher of the Evening Huronite, of Huron, S. Dak.

(The correspondence referred to is as follows:)

Huron, S. Dak., *September 5, 1940.*

Mr. Joe Ryan,
Lincoln, Nebr.

Dear Joe: I am sorry that I will be unable to accept your invitation to appear at the hearing in Lincoln on South Dakota migration. I do not know what I could add to such a hearing other than a rather general and hearsay knowledge of the problem.

It seems to me that it is obvious that the emigration from South Dakota farms will continue until farming is stabilized economically in this State. It is also just as obvious that this stabilization has not yet taken place.

There has been much progress made toward the development of a more permanently satisfactory farming system in the State, but the goal of economic independence of South Dakota farmers has not yet been reached.

I believe that every serious and adequate study which has been made of farming in the central portion of the State has shown that the farm units are still too small for profitable farming over the period of wet and dry years which seem to be the normal expectancy in this State. Due to emigration and the vacating of farm lands, farm units have tended to increase in size through rentals and purchases during the last few years. However, this tendency has not gone as far as it must as yet, nor have a sufficiently large number of the farmers been able financially and otherwise to accommodate their operations to the change which is necessary. Whereas governmental assistance has aided considerably in making the change possible for some, it has at the same time acted as artificial freezing of the old pattern of farming and has tended to prevent the ultimately desired stabilization.

A return to years of more abundant rainfall would tend to make possible more profitable farming on smaller units and would thus delay the inevitable shift until a recurrence of dry years. This would also slow up emigration, which would again increase with the return of drought.

Naturally, with a shifting in basic agricultural practices, there must come a change in local governmental service and cost. In other words, this country in central South Dakota was opened up in quarter-section homesteads and the system of local government suitable to such farm units was established. If the farm units are to be increased four or five fold in size, then the local governments must be changed to conform to the new base economic pattern.

Attempting to be practical as possible, it would seem to me that the greatest good could be accomplished at this time by the establishment of continuing studies of basic land agricultural and governmental problems, studies in which all interests in the communities participated.

Although there have been various scattered studies made, there is being made in South Dakota no continuing study of basic problems in which various interests of the State and local communities are participating.

With best regards,

Sincerely,

Bob Lusk
Robert D. Lusk.

Huron, S. Dak., *September 7, 1940.*

Mr. Joe Ryan,
Lincoln, Nebr.

Dear Joe: I wrote you the other day a brief letter for the hearing in Lincoln this coming week. Going through some material I had at home I ran across the enclosed more elaborate article which you might insert in the records should you care to do so.

This article was written about a year ago and was sent to the Saturday Evening Post. It was too much farm stuff for the Post and they turned it over to the Country Gentleman, which wanted it boiled down to a mere story of the sorghum growing in South Dakota. This I did, and the article was published in May. This more elaborate story, which I am enclosing, has not been published, and you may use it for whatever purpose you might possibly have for it.[1]

With best regards,

Sincerely,

Bob
Robert D. Lusk.

The Chairman. The committee will adjourn until 2 o'clock.

(Thereupon, at 12:25 p. m., a recess was taken until 2 p. m. of the same day.)

AFTER RECESS

The proceedings were resumed at 2 p. m., at the expiration of the recess.

The Chairman. The committee will come to order.

TESTIMONY OF EZRA PASSMORE, OF SPRINGFIELD, ARK.

Mr. Curtis. State your full name, please.

Mr. Passmore. Ezra Passmore.

Mr. Curtis. And how old are you, Ezra?

Mr. Passmore. Twenty-three.

Mr. Curtis. And where were you born?

Mr. Passmore. In Arkansas.

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[1] This material is held in committee files and not printed.

Mr. Curtis. And what education have you had?

Mr. Passmore. Eighth grade, grammar school.

Mr. Curtis. Where do your parents live?

Mr. Passmore. Springfield, Ark.

Mr. Curtis. What does your family consist of? That is, how many brothers and sisters?

Mr. Passmore. There are 13 in the family. Of course, I have 4 sisters and 2 brothers, and then I have some stepsisters. You see, my father has been married twice. There are 13 in all.

Mr. Curtis. Is your own mother dead, Mr. Passmore?

Mr. Passmore. Yes, sir.

Mr. Curtis. What does your father do for a living?

Mr. Passmore. Tenant farming.

Mr. Curtis. He is a tenant farmer? Where?

Mr. Passmore. Springfield, Ark.

Mr. Curtis. How many people reside with him?

Mr. Passmore. Nine.

Mr. Curtis. And who are they, that is, his own children?

Mr. Passmore. Well, they are his own children, all of them.

Mr. Curtis. And they live in a log cabin, don't they?

Mr. Passmore. Yes, sir.

Mr. Curtis. How many rooms?

Mr. Passmore. Three. There are no windows in it. Well, there are, but of course there is no glass, nothing to protect them, to keep out flies or anything like that.

Mr. Curtis. Are the flies pretty thick down there, Mr. Passmore?

Mr. Passmore. Absolutely.

Mr. Curtis. So, a three-room log cabin. Does he rent it?

Mr. Passmore. He doesn't own it. He doesn't own the place.

Mr. Curtis. Does he rent it?

Mr. Passmore. No; he doesn't.

Mr. Curtis. Does he pay rent for it, I mean.

Mr. Passmore. No; you see, he rents this farm from another fellow, and he gets the house with it.

Mr. Curtis. Is it an old house? An old log cabin?

Mr. Passmore. Awful old.

Mr. Curtis. And there are nine in it?

Mr. Passmore. They all sleep in one room.

Mr. Curtis. They all sleep in one room—on the floor?

Mr. Passmore. No; they have beds.

Mr. Curtis. How big is the room?

Mr. Passmore. Well, I imagine it's about 10 by 15; maybe 15 by 20.

Mr. Curtis. You are not living there with him now, are you?

Mr. Passmore. No; I am not.

Mr. Curtis. When did you first become ill?

Mr. Passmore. In 1933 my case was first diagnosed, but I had a very large cavity in my left lung, about the size of an orange. I imagine I had tuberculosis 2 years before I was ever diagnosed. About 1930 or 1931 was when I first got the disease.

Mr. Curtis. Is it clearing up now?

Mr. Passmore. Well, not now, it isn't. It did. I got well—I went to the hospital and got well, and then went back home. I stayed in the hospital for 3 years, and it became arrested.

Mr. Curtis. Yes; I know.

Mr. Passmore. They gave me pneumothorax. I don't know whether you ever heard of it or not, but they put air in your lung between the pleural spaces and collapse the lung. Well, they collapsed that lung and closed the cavity. I got well and was down there in the hospital about 3 years and a few days, and I went back home; and on account of poor living conditions and things I broke down again in a short period of time, and I had to go back to the hospital, and I was back about 4 months. I went back home, and in about 4 or 5 months the same thing happened. Then I went to Albuquerque, N. Mex., and got a job in a filling station, and I seemed to start improving right off. After a couple of months I lost my job, and from there I went to Phoenix, Ariz., with a magazine crew. And I worked in Arizona and California and Colorado with this magazine crew, and I gained about 15 or 20 pounds of weight.

Mr. Curtis. How is your weight now?

Mr. Passmore. I weigh about 25 pounds less than I did then.

Mr. Curtis. You are about 25 pounds under weight?

Mr. Passmore. I weigh about 25 pounds less than I did then.

Mr. Curtis. What is your height?

Mr. Passmore. Five feet nine inches.

Mr. Curtis. Tell about this treatment. Did they repeat that treatment?

Mr. Passmore. Well, when I first started taking pneumothorax, they gave me one shot, gave me a shot of air, and then they waited a day and gave me another shot, and then they put me on that twice a week. I stayed on that twice a week for 5 months. They stick a needle through your side and put a little tube in there and inject the air in there.

Mr. Curtis. Do they give you a local when they inject the needle?

Mr. Passmore. They do; but it isn't necessary; in some cases they do, and in some they don't. It really isn't necessary, because there isn't any pain much, anyway.

Mr. Curtis. You are a pretty game boy. Where did you get the treatments? Who furnished them?

Mr. Passmore. I was treated at the hospital in Booneville, Ark., and when I left there, of course I had to continue taking treatments. I went into Little Rock, Ark., for some treatments, and of course I got that through the relief there. They paid for it. I did that for a few months, and then I broke down a second time and went back to the hospital and they kept on giving me pneumothorax in this way, and I developed trouble in my right lung—in both lungs, in fact, now; that is, you see, I took pneumothorax in this side, and it left it permanently collapsed. In other words, there is no tuberculosis in that side—active tuberculosis.

Mr. Curtis. The left side?

Mr. Passmore. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. It is permanently collapsed?

Mr. Passmore. There is no breathing space; and I have a cavity in the other side, in this right lung, and of course I think they are going to try to give me pneumothorax in that side before long. They say that I don't have much breathing space. And some people have what they call a spontaneous collapse, and they tell me if they give me this pneumothorax and I have a spontaneous collapse—probably it would put me away.

Mr. Curtis. Now, when did you return home after making these trips?

Mr. Passmore. Well, it was April 1939 when I went back to Arkansas, and I was in perfectly good condition then. I stayed back there 5 weeks with my parents, and I saw I was getting worse; that is, I seen I was breaking down again, developing new trouble, and physicians there advised me to come back west.

Mr. Curtis. Well, Ezra, do you attribute your condition to your poor living conditions at home? Do you think they had anything to do with your tubercular trouble?

Mr. Passmore. Absolutely. That was the cause of my having tuberculosis in the first place.

Mr. Curtis. What were the conditions that contributed to it?

Mr. Passmore. I lived in filth all my life, until I got away, in the hospital; and among flies, and didn't have enough food to eat, and everything else.

Mr. Curtis. No sanitary appliances?

Mr. Passmore. It wasn't sanitary at all.

Mr. Curtis. Any of the other members of your family afflicted?

Mr. Passmore. I have a sister that is very sick with it at the present time. I don't think she will ever get well.

Mr. Curtis. How old is she?

Mr. Passmore. She is 28, and she stayed in the hospital about 3 years, also. And I have a brother that has an arrested case of tuberculosis. He took pneumothorax, also. He is working at the hospital now. And I have another sister who stayed there 4 months. Then, of course, my mother died of it. And I have had three cousins who died of it, and a couple of uncles and an aunt, so it runs in the family.

Mr. Curtis. Yes. While it runs in the family, the poor living conditions you were in didn't help it any, did it?

Mr. Passmore. We spread it among each other, because we didn't know, and we didn't use precautions to prevent it. We would drink after each other—such things as that, you know. We didn't know anything about tuberculosis.

Mr. Curtis. Has medical science demonstrated yet that it is communicable; do you know whether medical science teaches that it can be communicated?

Mr. Passmore. Communicated?

Mr. Curtis. Yes.

Mr. Passmore. Well, I don't think so. I don't know. I know one doctor who claims he has a cure for tuberculosis. In fact, I am taking his treatment, but I don't know whether there is anything to it or not.

Mr. Curtis. You are doing the right thing, I think, to try anything.

Mr. Passmore. He claims that it will cure you in about a year or 15 months; he says that it immunizes you and cures you also.

Mr. CURTIS. Well, when you first went home you went to—you went to Albuquerque, didn't you?

Mr. PASSMORE. Albuquerque.

Mr. CURTIS. How did you get there?

Mr. PASSMORE. I went in a Travelers' Bureau car.

Mr. CURTIS. Did you get work in Albuquerque?

Mr. PASSMORE. I worked at a service station for a couple of months.

Mr. CURTIS. Then what did you do?

Mr. PASSMORE. I went to Phoenix, Ariz.

Mr. CURTIS. What did you do there?

Mr. PASSMORE. Well, I read an ad in the paper that a fellow wanted a young boy to travel, and good pay, so I went up and talked to him about it and found out it was a magazine crew, so I didn't have any job or way to make a living, so I decided that was a better way than none.

Mr. CURTIS. Well, your health improved there?

Mr. PASSMORE. My health improved there very greatly after that.

Mr. CURTIS. Do you think it was the climate or the fact that you had a good job and got along all right?

Mr. PASSMORE. I think it was the climate, and I had everything in the world I wanted to eat, and I took good care of myself. I would work 8 hours a day and rest good at night.

Mr. CURTIS. When you were living at home, you didn't have enough to eat?

Mr. PASSMORE. Plenty of times we had almost nothing.

Mr. CURTIS. What did your meals consist of?

Mr. PASSMORE. Well, for dinner at night it was corn bread and milk.

Mr. CURTIS. Enough of it? Did you get enough of it?

Mr. PASSMORE. Well, sure, we'd get enough of it. And for lunch we would have probably—well, I'll tell you, in the summertime, when we had a garden, we had plenty to eat.

Mr. CURTIS. Yes.

Mr. PASSMORE. Plenty of fresh vegetables and things like that, but in the wintertime we didn't have so much to eat.

Mr. CURTIS. Was your health better in the summertime?

Mr. PASSMORE. I believe it was, because I had more to eat.

Mr. CURTIS. Well, then, you went back home from Phoenix, didn't you?

Mr. PASSMORE. I didn't go from Phoenix. I went from Colorado.

Mr. CURTIS. Then you went to Colorado?

Mr. PASSMORE. Then I went to Colorado, and then I went home from there.

Mr. CURTIS. What were you doing there in Colorado?

Mr. PASSMORE. Working with this magazine crew.

Mr. CURTIS. Why did you go home from there?

Mr. PASSMORE. I got homesick and decided I wanted to see the folks, and went back home. I shouldn't have done it, I know.

Mr. CURTIS. No matter how poor, it is home, isn't it?

Mr. PASSMORE. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. And did your health break down then, at that time?

Mr. Passmore. Yes; it did. I went home, and it seemed like I did all right for the first couple of weeks, and I got along all right, and then I started losing weight, and I was weak and sick and everything. So I decided—well, the physicians, they advised me to come back out west, because they said that that wasn't the place for me.

Mr. Curtis. Where did you get the money to get home on?

Mr. Passmore. The branch office manager loaned it to me. He sent me a ticket, and I paid him back out of the pay each week

Mr. Curtis. When you became ill again, where did you go?

Mr. Passmore. Where did I go?

Mr. Curtis. Yes.

Mr. Passmore. Well, I went to the Denver General Hospital and got an X-ray picture, and the dispensary doctor there read my X-ray to me, and he is supposed to be a very, very good tuberculosis specialist, and he told me that I don't have tuberculosis. He says that my case is arrested, and him knowing all the time that I had a large cavity in my lung, because anyone can see it if he is 50 yards from it, and what he was trying to do was to get rid of me.

Mr. Curtis. You didn't seem to be wanted? They didn't appear to want to take care of you?

Mr. Passmore. No; they didn't. But they did put me in a convalescent home for a month, and they were trying to verify my residence in Arkansas.

Mr. Curtis. Do you know whether or not the hospital corresponded with the Arkansas State Sanitarium, or relief authorities in Arkansas?

Mr. Passmore. Do you know whether they corresponded with them?

Mr. Curtis. Yes.

Mr. Passmore. Yes; they did. I corresponded with them myself.

Mr. Curtis. Do you know what Arkansas told them?

Mr. Passmore. They told them they would accept me back as a resident, but they wouldn't do anything for me if I came back; I would be on my own, and that was while I was so sick I could hardly walk alone.

Mr. Curtis. How are you living now?

Mr. Passmore. I am staying in a convalescent home.

Mr. Curtis. Do you receive any money from anybody?

Mr. Passmore. There is a church group in Denver, Colo., that has taken care of most all of my board and room. You see, they were trying to take care of me; they have a great interest in my case, and I told them how bad I would like to stay out here, because I knew if I went home I didn't have a chance to live, so they took it on themselves to take care of me out here in a convalescent home; $27.50 a month.

Mr. Curtis. Do you expect to get cured in this home?

Mr. Passmore. Well, I don't think so. I intend to go to the hospital if I possibly can.

Mr. Curtis. What hospital?

Mr. Passmore. National Jewish Hospital.

Mr. Curtis. Do you think you can get in all right?

Mr. Passmore. Yes; I think I can. I have made application out there four different times, but I couldn't get the right people behind it, but now I do have, and I have the assurance of getting in there in about a couple of months.

Mr. Curtis. You don't want to go back to Arkansas, do you?

Mr. Passmore. I do not. I would like to go back and see my folks and everything, but I know it isn't the best thing for me. I would rather live and stay out here and not see them than go back and see them and die.

Mr. Curtis. Now, then, in those different trips you made between different States, did you have any trouble crossing State lines, resident trouble, or anything of that kind?

Mr. Passmore. No; not one bit. One place they stopped us and wanted to know if there was any liquor in the car, is the only thing.

Mr. Curtis. Ezra, you are a pretty game boy. Keep the old chin up, and anything we can help you in, let us know.

Thank you very much.

Mr. Passmore. Thank you.

TESTIMONY OF C. E. ALTER, OF ALMA, NEBR.

Mr. Curtis. Mr. Alter, do you have a statement to present to the committee?

Mr. Alter. Yes.

(The statement submitted is as follows:)

STATEMENT BY C. E. ALTER, OF ALMA, NEBR.

I am C. E. Alter, of Alma, Nebr. I have lived in Nebraska for 53 years and have been in the lumber, ranching, and other businesses. The Alter family have been in business on the same corner at Alma, Nebr., for 43 yars. My business dealings throughout these years have been primarily with farmers and those businessmen who were dependent upon the farmers' trade. My own business is such. I have made some observations as time went along, and I have witnessed the people go through periods of hardship and periods of prosperity.

For 3 years I was president of the South Platte United Chambers of Commerce, an organization which represents the chambers of commerce and community clubs of 55 towns and 17 counties lying south of the Platte River, and extending from Nuckolls County to the Colorado line. This club has been intensely interested in all of the problems of the territory. This United South Platte Chambers of Commerce fathered the pasture forage livestock program which Mr. Brokaw described so well yesterday.

At the present time, I am the Nebraska director of the National Reclamation Association. We Nebraskans know that water means life, that the basic cause of many of the troubles that we are facing is drought or insufficient rainfall. The migration of destitute persons has been very real to us because we have seen our neighbors and friends, our customers, and, in some instances, our relatives, forced off the land due to drought, price structure, foreclosures, and similar causes. We know of instances where those people have gone elsewhere and have had to remain on relief. In other cases they perhaps did get a job in some other State, but they might have taken the job away from someone in that locality who needed it.

As speaking for that area of Nebraska, which has perhaps lost a greater percent of population than any area in the United States, we are interested in this migration problem. It has been pointed out that when a condition exists that forces as many as 25 percent of the people to leave, that conditions are extremely bad for those who remain.

A glance at the map of Nebraska shows that those sections where irrigation has been developed for a long enough time to really have a chance, that they have not only held their population but have grown in population. As a solution to the basic cause of migration of destitute persons from the Great Plains area, we urge an increase and extension of water conservation and irrigation, including pump irrigation. Mr. Brokaw, director of the extension work of the College of Agriculture, yesterday pointed out that Nebraska has possibilities for the further development of at least 400,000 acres in irrigation. He pointed out to you the desperate situation in regard to the Republican Valley. A great flood occurred there 5 years ago, which took over a hundred lives and ruined thousands of acres of some of the best farming land of the State.

We believe that this committee will find that when the Federal Government spends money for irrigation in the Great Plains territory that that has very beneficial results in relieving the tax, social, relief, and general economic problems not only of the Pacific Northwestern States, California, Chicago, but throughout the entire United States. In addition to making homes for these people and keeping them on the land, an irrigated district provides the greatest possible market for the industrial centers of the United States. I am firmly convinced that the States of Ohio, New York, Georgia, Illinois, Michigan, the West Coast and every State, is financially benefited by the further development of irrigation in Nebraska.

I herewith attach a map[1] of Nebraska and submit figures which show that 43 counties that are marked on this map represent 95 percent of the entire loss in population in the State of Nebraska and also represent more than 100 percent in the loss of the farm population in our State. Mr. Brokaw made mention concerning the desirability of such rivers as the Republican River Valley supplying feed and grain crops for a range country in the northern sections. This valley, up until 1935, the year of the flood, was one of the most productive and self-sustaining sections in the entire State. Since the flood, which destroyed millions of dollars of property and thousands of acres of fertile land, it has now become one of the outstanding migration problems of the entire United States. The National Resources Planning Board has just completed a hearing at McCook, Nebr., relative to our reclamation and irrigation problems, and is definitely interested in seeing that some immediate progress is made in storing our waste water and using it for irrigation in the Republican River Valley and its tributaries.

Quite a large number of our renters and landowners are also definitely interested in pump irrigation, and when we see some of the results that have just been accomplished by pump irrigation in the last 2 years we feel that the Government could well afford to promote a series of pump-irrigation projects in our State. We have two farmers in our immediate vicinity that are using pump irrigation and are now raising 50 to 60 bushels of corn per acre, approximately 2 tons of alfalfa per acre with bounteous seed crops of sargo and alfalfa seed. While on all sides of these producers there is no crop of any kind. These wells are very economical in operation.

I wish to impress the committee with the idea and facts that the farmers of Nebraska in the drought areas have their backs against the wall and are fighting desperately to maintain their status as good Americans and taxpayers, and urge that your committee impress upon the rest of the Congress that something must be done to relieve the drought areas in the Great Plains district by making it possible to maintain themselves by their own efforts in the business in which they are engaged rather than to continue to receive Government relief through agencies, which is also a drain on the rest of the taxpayers in the Nation.

TESTIMONY OF C. E. ALTER—Resumed

Mr. CURTIS. And where is your business located?

Mr. ALTER. At Alma.

Mr. CURTIS. That is in Harland County?

Mr. ALTER. Yes.

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[1] The map referred to was filed with the committee, and not printed.

Mr. CURTIS. How long has the Alter family been in business in that particular place?

Mr. ALTER. It is past 43 years, this spring.

Mr. CURTIS. How long have you been active in the management of that business?

Mr. ALTER. Since 1904, 36 years past.

Mr. CURTIS. Mr. Alter, you hold some office in the National Reclamation Association, is that correct?

Mr. ALTER. State director of that association.

Mr. CURTIS. Over a period of some time you were also the head of the United South Platte Chambers of Commerce?

Mr. ALTER. Three years I was president of that.

PURPOSE AND WORK OF UNITED SOUTH PLATTE CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE

Mr. CURTIS. For the purpose of the record, tell what kind of an organization that is and over how wide a territory it extends.

Mr. ALTER. Well, this organization, in the first instance, was organized to further the development of the tricounty irrigation project, and it ran into the development of southwest Nebraska flood control and irrigation for the benefit of farming. And since tricounty has been developed, the South Platte has taken on the problem of good roads and is trying to develop flood control and irrigation for southwest Nebraska. The South Platte United Chambers comprise organizations of chambers of commerce, Lions Clubs, and so forth; and it has been in 55 different towns and 17 counties in southwest Nebraska, from Nuckolls County to the Platte on the north, to the Colorado line.

Mr. CURTIS. In your years of business experience, you have been dealing primarily with farmers and ranchers, and people who are dealing with them, isn't that true?

Mr. ALTER. That is right.

Mr. CURTIS. You have seen some of them come and go; what has been the condition in your immediate territory? Are you gaining population or going behind?

Mr. ALTER. Well, we came here in 1886, the spring of 1886, and our section of the country, which is on the Republican River, always did quite well, I think, with a few exceptions, like 1894 and 1923, and times like that when drought and poor crops have made it rather tough for the farmer. But our country, up until the last—I will say 5 years—since the 1935 flood, has always gone ahead quite substantially, I would say. Since 1935, according to our county agents' records, we have a few over 300 farm families out of our county, which is a 24-mile square county.

FEDERAL AID IN IRRIGATION RECOMMENDED

Mr. CURTIS. Mr. Alter, I have noticed that you have been here for considerable of the testimony, and you have heard some of the migrants testify and some of these experts from governmental agencies. What particular line of activity or development or assistance could the United States Government give that would do more than anything else to hold those people on their farms and make farming profitable in Nebraska?

Mr. **Alter.** Well, of course, that is a debatable question. My observation has been that the only way that the Alter family—and we have done fairly well there—can do, is to try to produce all the things we can on the land we have, and to use our best judgment about crops. Of course, in the last few years, the triple A has done some good, because of the fact that we didn't raise any crops, but in my opinion, a little less restriction and a little more assistance, probably in funds to develop the country, probably flood control and irrigation, pump irrigation as well, because we have first-hand information about pump irrigation, what it will do for any section of the country, and especially ours. Our valley is one of the best in the United States; I don't think that there is any question about that, as far as fertility is concerned. If the Government would handle the administration and spend funds for helping the farmer stay on the farm—whatever activities—I would say in irrigation of some nature, our problem in that section of the country would be solved.

Mr. **Curtis.** You subscribe, then, more or less to the statement that many portions of Nebraska have primarily a problem of water?

Mr. **Alter.** It is entirely so with us, I think, through our section of the country, supplemental water; we have been getting 7 or 8 inches less than our normal rainfall the last few years, and if we had just water applications of small amounts, we would do real well.

Mr. **Curtis.** You heard the testimony of Mr. Brokaw yesterday?

Mr. **Alter.** Yes; I did.

Mr. **Curtis.** He stated that Nebraska had possibilities of the future development of irrigation of at least 400,000 acres?

Mr. **Alter.** Yes.

Mr. **Curtis.** From your observation, there is a great amount of water going down the Republican River every year that is not utilized?

Mr. **Alter.** That is right. The Army Engineers' Report shows that. We have a peculiar situation in the Republican River. Its tributaries are spring-fed. We have quite a few streams in the Republican valley that feed the river that are continuous streams. The water goes down the river and overflows a few times—even overflowed this year.

Mr. **Curtis.** When we consider the length of the valley there, it is practically undeveloped, as a matter of irrigation, isn't it?

Mr. **Alter.** Practically so, except in Dundee and Hitchcock Counties.

Mr. **Curtis.** Now, something was said by Commissioner Page this morning in reference to pointing out the population trend in Scottsbluff County, which is one of the oldest irrigation districts in the United States, as compared with the rest of Nebraska. Were you here for that testimony?

Mr. **Alter.** I heard part of it, I think. I am not sure I know what you are referring to.

Mr. **Curtis.** Well, I withdraw that question.

Mr. Alter, in addition to gravity irrigation that might be developed in Nebraska, do you have any suggestions or observations that would be helpful to this committee to take back to Congress in the way of any pump irrigation developments?

Mr. Alter. Just 2 years ago we had three farmers south of our town that put in pump irrigation, on just ordinary land; it is the same kind of land as that all around it. I talked to those gentlemen over the phone just yesterday, and one of them informed me that he has about 125 acres under irrigation, 25 acres in alfalfa. It will grow anywhere from 50 to 75 bushels per acre of fine corn. He tells me that he has raised seed crops this year of 165 bushels of alfalfa; seed on 25 acres, which is about 7 bushels per acre, and the price, you can readily see, will be quite an investment, even as the gentleman said this morning; a hundred dollars an acre the cost of irrigation, that would more than pay half the cost in 1 year, so I think the investment would be quite worthwhile.

Then there is a small pump right south of town, just a half mile, that I have noticed continuously. The farmer put in a pump there this year and the well is 30 feet deep; he irrigates 4 acres, and so far this year he has had 8 tons of alfalfa an acre over it, and the average is 2 tons per acre, and that is just ordinary second bottom land; so there is no question at all, all over the country. I have been over the State a good deal, and wherever you see pump irrigation it is definitely paying. In fact, it is just the difference between a crop and no crop at all.

Mr. Curtis. Does it have any effect upon the town?

Mr. Alter. There is no question about that. The testimony around us proves that. Alma, of course, is an outstanding city, as I always say.

Mr. Curtis. The past mayor of the town—you would.

Mr. Alter. Well, I am still president of the council, so I still claim it is a pretty good town; but we did gain a little in population, due to the fact that we do have a good town; no vacancies, and so far as our particular situation is concerned, it is better than any place around us, because we have taken some action ourselves and tried to develop that particular locality.

Mr. Curtis. Now, Mr. Alter, we brought out in the testimony this morning the situation where in those counties reached by the Water Facilities Board, the Farm Security Administration is making long-time loans to farmers who are very much in need. In counties outside of those touched by the Water Facilities Board—and that is the great portion of the drought area—there were no Farm Security loans available at all for pump irrigation, and the only thing available was a 3-year F. H. A. loan, worked through the local banks. Do you feel that there is a need for a Government program making pump irrigation available over a reasonably long period of years, at a low rate of interest, to all the people that want it, those middle-class people as well as those who might qualify as being extremely in need?

Mr. Alter. I think that is one of the primary answers to our situation through these drought areas—funds from the Government to accommodate folks with loans of sufficient duration that they can pay them back, which can be done if they do that, because we have seen this country develop and know that the land is there, and it is the best in the country, and all it needs is water. It would be a good deal better, in my opinion, rather than to give them a lot of the so-called benefits, to set them up so they would be self-supporting. With taxpaying citizens, there would be no question about their getting along. They can't help it if the drought remains.

Mr. CURTIS. It would provide employment for a number of people who no longer have any farm equipment for themselves?

Mr. ALTER. That is right.

Mr. CURTIS. I had an opportunity 2 days ago to make investigation in reference to the Arthur H. Jones well west of Hastings. You have seen it?

Mr. ALTER. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. I think I shall submit those facts to the record. He has a well, an 18-inch well; it is 200 feet deep; it is 135 feet to water, and he has 65 feet of screen casings. His actual pumping experience is 1,300 gallons per minute. Mr. Jones happens to be the Chrysler dealer there, and he has the first Chrysler Diesel engine constructed for pump irrigation in the United States, and he is operating that Diesel engine at the cost of 40 cents an hour. His well cost $2,800; his motor cost $1,600; or a total of $4,400. And he has ample water to irrigate his half section. It is his opinion, however, that that should not be attempted unless you have a balanced program of livestock together with the crops that you raise there. In answer to the inquiry as to how much of an outlay it would take for an irrigation set-up for 80 acres, he said that in his best judgment it would be about $2,500. Mr. Alter, do you have any further suggestions to make? Your written statement here, which is incorporated in the record, is very good, and we are very glad to have that. In there you make reference to a map that you have. You will just have that identified by the reporter and make any comment you care to make concerning that map.

Mr. ALTER. It is a map of Nebraska, which has just been made by a committee representing 45 counties; it shows that these 45 counties, of which our territory is a major part—45 out of the 93 in all—sustained 98 percent of the total loss of population in Nebraska. It shows the situation in a very good section of the country that has always been one of the leading farming communities in the State.

Mr. CURTIS. Now, do you have any further suggestions or ideas that you would like to leave with this committee?

Mr. ALTER. Just this, Congressman: I should like to impress upon you, as well as Congressman Tolan and the rest of the committee, that the people in Nebraska are very desirous of something being done whereby they can become taxpaying citizens, and have some good investments made in that country, by irrigation, either by dams or by pump irrigation. I think lack of water is 95 percent of our trouble. I think you wouldn't have any trouble with migration, as far as Nebraska is concerned, if you had supplemental water.

Mr. CURTIS. And you will be buying a few products from the industrial East as a result of the benefits from those things here?

Mr. ALTER. I have had some surveys made in the section there along the river in regard to pump irrigation. You can get in the section which is not far from water, and you can get plenty of equipment for twelve or fourteen hundred dollars, watering anything up to 80 acres or so. There is plenty of water. You don't have to worry about that.

Mr. CURTIS. Thank you so much for appearing here.

TESTIMONY OF CLYDE JOHNSON, OF DENVER, COLO., INTERNATIONAL REPRESENTATIVE OF THE UNITED CANNERY, AGRICULTURAL, PACKING AND ALLIED WORKERS OF AMERICA

The CHAIRMAN. Your name is Clyde Johnson?

Mr. JOHNSON. That is right.

The CHAIRMAN. Where do you reside?

Mr. JOHNSON. In Denver, Colo.

The CHAIRMAN. In what capacity do you appear here?

Mr. JOHNSON. As representative of the United Cannery, Agricultural, Packing, and Allied Workers of America.

The CHAIRMAN. How long have you been so employed?

Mr. JOHNSON. Three and a half years.

The CHAIRMAN. Your statement has to do with the migration to the sugar beet fields?

Mr. JOHNSON. That is right.

STATEMENT BY CLYDE JOHNSON, UNITED CANNERY, AGRICULTURAL, PACKING AND ALLIED WORKERS OF AMERICA, CONGRESS OF INDUSTRIAL ORGANIZATIONS, DISTRICT 3, DENVER, COLO.

A STATEMENT ON MIGRATORY FARM LABOR

Thousands of farm workers migrate to the sugar-beet fields of Colorado, Wyoming, Nebraska, Montana, and other Rocky Mountain States every year. They come from California, Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, Oklahoma, Kansas, Missouri, and other States. During the months between the hoeing and topping of sugar beets most of them work at potato picking, and bean, tomato, pea, melon, and other crop picking.

In spite of the minimum wage set by the Department of Agriculture, under the Sugar Act of 1937, wage cutting below the legal minimum is common. The resident workers find themselves in competition with migratory workers over wages and jobs.

The migratory workers take any job available regardless of wage, as a rule, and live in chicken coops, dilapidated shacks, or other poorly constructed houses on farms. Water is usually a long distance from the shack.

No migratory labor is needed in northern Colorado. There are enough resident workers to handle the crop.

The paths to the beet fields are so well worn, originally blazed by sugar company agents, that no recruiting is necessary. It is significant, however, that some sugar companies still maintain offices in other States.

The United States Employment Service has not been effective in handling the migratory labor situation. This has been due to lack of cooperation from farmers and lack of help to handle the situation.

General ignorance of the provisions of the Sugar Act, except where a union is organized, is responsible for much wage cutting. The Department of Agriculture has never issued an explanation of the law to workers.

In behalf of district No. 3, United Cannery, Agricultural, Packing and Allied Workers of America, Congress of Industrial Organizations, we recommend:

1. Extension of the Sugar Act of 1937 and much more rigid enforcement of its provisions.
2. Development of a better hiring program through the United States Employment Service.
3. Migratory labor housing projects.
4. Extension of the Social Security Act to farm labor to help eliminate migration.

TESTIMONY OF CLYDE JOHNSON—Resumed

MIGRATORY SUGAR BEET WORKERS

The CHAIRMAN. Where do they migrate to, those sugar-beet workers?

Mr. JOHNSON. They come to Kansas, Colorado, Nebraska, Wyoming, Montana, South Dakota, and Utah.

The CHAIRMAN. Well, in great numbers, or just a few of them?

Mr. JOHNSON. I estimate about—well, there are various estimates for all those States; we figure about 10,000.

The CHAIRMAN. About 10,000. Do they all find work?

Mr. JOHNSON. No; they don't. The great majority do. They usually find difficulty on particular contracts. My observation has been mostly in the last year and a half, when there has been a drought condition affecting the crops, that some of them got contracts that didn't pan out. But as a general rule most of them do get their work. If not, they just keep going north until they find it.

The CHAIRMAN. How do they travel?

Mr. JOHNSON. Mostly by automobile.

The CHAIRMAN. That is, families?

Mr. JOHNSON. Families.

The CHAIRMAN. Do children work in the sugar beets?

Mr. JOHNSON. The Sugar Act of 1937 prohibits children under 14 years of age from working.

The CHAIRMAN. They don't pay much attention to that, do they, lots of people?

Mr. JOHNSON. I would say it is generally observed, but at the same time I know of a number of violations.

The CHAIRMAN. What do these sugar workers earn?

Mr. JOHNSON. I would say the average income of a sugar-beet worker's family was approximately $300 a year. There are estimates that run higher and lower, but that depends entirely on the size of the family.

The CHAIRMAN. Is that a family income?

Mr. JOHNSON. Yes.

The CHAIRMAN. You say $300 a year; and how long does the season last?

Mr. JOHNSON. I would say the work season was about 4 months. It is spread over a period of about 7 months, though.

The CHAIRMAN. Then do they go back home after that particular picking?

Mr. JOHNSON. It all depends on where they come from. If they are from California or Oregon, they continue into Washington and those Pacific coast States; if from Texas, they usually go back to Texas or else they go down to Arizona and all down through that way, along through New Mexico to Texas.

The CHAIRMAN. Is there any influx from Nebraska?

Mr. JOHNSON. Well, there are not enough workers in Nebraska to handle the crop. I would say the Grand Island district had almost enough to handle the crop.

The CHAIRMAN. Well, now, these people, sugar-beet workers, also work at potato picking and in the picking of other crops?

Mr. JOHNSON. Yes; they do.

The CHAIRMAN. Anything they can get to do?

Mr. JOHNSON. They get approximately 2 months' work in the summer.

The CHAIRMAN. Tell me about their housing conditions. Where do they live?

Mr. JOHNSON. Well, they take what they get. A migratory worker has to live on the farm, and I know of many instances where they lived in a chicken coop or part of the barn, or in a very dilapidated shack, where you could see the sun come up through the roof, and catch the rain in buckets. I have a few studies here in which they make some choice remarks about that type of housing. There are very few of the houses—speaking now of northern Colorado—I would say few of the houses are really fit to live in, and certainly not fit to live in in the winter time.

The CHAIRMAN. Where do these beet pickers get the information about employment; do you know?

Mr. JOHNSON. There is a little history on that. The sugar companies first brought them from Mexico and from Texas, about 20 or 25 years ago, and every year they used to send down for them in box cars and trucks and things like that. We have men in our Union who were once recruiting agents for the sugar-beet companies. They would get a nickel a "head" for each man, I guess. After years of that type of recruiting, the workers soon became generally acquainted with the paths to the fields.

The sugar companies still, according to the information I have, maintain offices in Phoenix, Ariz., or places in those other cities on the migrant route to the beet fields, although there have been a number of conferences each year with the Governor of Colorado trying to keep down the migration. The sugar companies claim that they are not bringing in outside labor, while the Work Projects Administration authorities have challenged the sugar companies on occasion, in those Governor's conferences, and presented leaflets which the sugar people issued.

But in the last 2 years I don't believe the sugar companies have called people up or put out leaflets advertising for labor or anything of the kind, except in Denver.

But as I said, the people in Texas and Arizona and the States like that know just when the sugar-beet work starts, and they all come up in time and try to get contracts.

I would like to add that our union has done its best to try to direct migration. We have local unions operating in all of these States, and we have tried very hard to notify people, through our Spanish paper, where jobs are available, of acreages there are in different factory districts and not to come where we feel there is sufficient resident labor, because it is our feeling that the unorganized migratory workers coming in where there is sufficient resident labor tear down wage scales, in spite of the fact that the Department of Labor does set a minimum wage for a particular season. That influx just floods the labor market, and then you have people working on share contracts, or working for very low rates, or working under arrangements that are violations of the sugar law.

Now, we know that there are violations, because we have had migratory workers, who are union members, come from different places into our district office and file claims. It appears that there were 10 workers on a job, but only one filed a claim, so our union got the money coming to one. That is how we have been able to check up on many violations.

The CHAIRMAN. Do you know of any private employment agencies sending these people across State lines?

Mr. JOHNSON. Yes; though they are not agencies. Individuals, say, a Spanish-American worker, will go out and sign up maybe 8 or 10 contracts in his factory district; then he will write to relatives and friends in New Mexico and Texas and have them come up, and have the contracts all ready for them. There is that kind of contractor, and he takes a percentage cut. Now, we stopped a lot of that last year, because we figure it unethical. That type of racketeering was fairly common until this last year, and I think because we stopped it in a couple of cases, it scared some of the others and the farmers, because they didn't want to be victims of wage claims and so forth.

The CHAIRMAN. Where there is this migratory problem, there has been a lot of misinformation about jobs where no jobs existed, is that true?

Mr. JOHNSON. Yes; I would say that the Employment Service, cooperating with the Farm Security Administration, has made a number of efforts to prevent that, by radio broadcasts and in leaflets. I don't think it has been effective enough. I don't think we have the forces. For instance, in Colorado, the State employment service has one man who oversees that for the State. Now, it is obviously impossible for him to do a complete job of checking that migration.

The CHAIRMAN. Have you any other suggestions to make, or anything else to say?

RECOMMENDATIONS

Mr. JOHNSON. I would like to make a few suggestions. In the first place, we would like to have an expanded Employment Service. I can't indict them here for what they haven't done. I don't think they had the funds with which to do what is necessary. I think they should have more money to work out a very concrete program to control hiring and secure cooperation of the farmers. Their big handicap is that there are only one or two men in county offices, and the farmers are not inclined to cooperate.

One can't blame the farmers nor the Employment Service. We feel if they have more money with which to operate, they can do a much better job of controlling that situation. We consider that very important, because it has tended to force residents of Colorado to go as far as Montana to get contracts, and that is what we want to stop. We stopped it in this last year, incidentally, by passing rules in our local unions against anybody leaving their local factory districts, and getting the county commissioners to do what they could to cooperate and see local labor gets jobs first.

The CHAIRMAN. Let us get practical if we can. Suppose a family starts out from Texas, Arkansas, Oklahoma, or Nebraska. They start driving toward the Pacific coast. Just what kind of machinery would you set up to give them correct information about employment conditions in these other States to which they are going?

Mr. JOHNSON. Well, our union is a pretty effective instrument, because we have local unions and spread this information in what we figure are the starting points.

The CHAIRMAN. What I am trying to get at is this: A family starts out, and doesn't care about unions. They are broke, and so they start out with the old jallopy on the highway. What I am trying to get at is: Have you any suggestion about the Federal Government, as to how it could give those families the real information about employment conditions?

Mr. JOHNSON. Well, I think there should be close cooperation between the relief bureaus, because I think those people do start out as relief clients, and if there is cooperation between the Unemployment Service and the relief bureaus, I think that would get pretty close to meeting that problem.

The CHAIRMAN. They don't know where the relief bureaus are or anything else, as far as that is concerned. They are starting out on the highway; would you have some point on the border where you would have a Federal man that could give them the information?

Mr. JOHNSON. I think that that should be done in a State like Colorado, because there are enough workers within Colorado to handle the whole crop. In a State like that, I would say it should be done. In fact, Governor Johnson, at one time, sent the National Guard down on the southern border to stop the migration of labor. But in States like Wyoming or Montana, where they do import and need a lot of migratory labor, I think information as to where to go should be passed to these people right at the border.

The CHAIRMAN. Well, Mr. Johnson, today there are thousands on the roadside. They don't know about relief bureaus. They are trying to pick up information, and what they get very often is not correct. I am trying to picture in my mind, as they travel along the highway, whether it is to Montana or Colorado or Arizona, places where they could get a little definite information as to the relief laws, and what their status is, and what their chances of employment are, don't you see? A place they could get this information along the border; is that practical? Could that be established; do you think?

Mr. JOHNSON. I think it could be done.

The CHAIRMAN. Your union idea, why, 90 percent of them don't know where to go to find your union.

Mr. Johnson. Well, a lot of them find their way to us. We get lots of requests from nonunion people for information and things like that. But I think it is a job for the Employment Service. I think that much of this migration, they should attempt—I don't think they should use any extra-legal means or anything of that kind, but they certainly should try to discourage migration. And I think if the people entering a State were handed a pamphlet describing to them the various relief laws and relief requirements and things of that kind, perhaps they would run around the State. I know they would if they came to Colorado.

Mr. Curtis. You feel, then, that if someone is in distress, the best place for them is at home?

Mr. Johnson. I think so.

Mr. Curtis. Where people know their conditions and their willingness to work, and so they are more apt to get just treatment?

Mr. Johnson. Very emphatically.

Mr. Curtis. Now, in reference to this union business—what kind of union do they join?

Mr. Johnson. It is a union formed 1937.

Mr. Curtis. Affiliated with——

Mr. Johnson. C. I. O.

Mr. Curtis. How much does the union take of their wages in dues?

Mr. Johnson. We have annual dues of $6 a year.

Mr. Curtis. Are you an officer in the union?

Mr. Johnson. Yes; I am.

Mr. Curtis. And what is your title?

Mr. Johnson. I am an international representative, and I am also a district president in Colorado.

Mr. Curtis. That is all.

The Chairman. Mr. Johnson, your remedy, then, would be to keep them at home? Is that the idea?

Mr. Johnson. I don't think we could legislate that overnight. I think we should aim toward that very strongly.

The Chairman. Let me give you a picture: You are married, have a large family, living on a farm in Texas, Oklahoma, or Arkansas, and you have got so that on account of the drought or soil conditions, worn-out soil—you have got to a point where it is absolutely impossible for you to make a living. And there are thousands of those cases.

Mr. Johnson. I know them.

The Chairman. Now, with that sort of picture, you can't stay at home, can you?

Mr. Johnson. Those people couldn't stay at home, and I don't blame them at all. I do say that is up to an expanded Farm Security program.

The Chairman. Well, let me tell you that that isn't the entire situation. There is that school of thought in the United States. A lot of our people, in California, say, "Why don't they stay at home?" Well, people won't starve sitting down, and neither would you, but they will go, and so would you go; there is no question about it. You would move any place better than that place.

Mr. Johnson. That is true.

The CHAIRMAN. And you are absolutely correct, and the Farm Security Administration has taken care of 500,000 families, by loans to them, but there are 800,000 more families uncared for. And the more I think about this migration problem, the more I incline to the conclusion that, while many things have caused it, it will take more than one solution. There are different approaches to it.

What are you going to do with them after they are on the road? That is the question which faces us, first of all. And there are many elements in this problem that are very important, anyway, Mr. Johnson.

Mr. CURTIS. Before we call the next witness I want to submit a paper that has been submitted by Mr. Klima, county clerk of Valley County.

VALLEY COUNTY, NEBR.[1]—WHAT'S HAPPENED

Valley County, comprising an area of 576 square miles or approximately 368,640 acres, was, under normal conditions, always considered to be one of the real good agricultural and livestock counties of Nebraska. During the past 7 years, however, because of continued severe drought conditions and consecutive crop failures, the resources of the people in Valley County have been depleted year after year, farmers have been forced to reduce livestock herds because of lack of feed, to borrow money to buy feed and seed, and to pay interest and taxes, and later either sell out or be sold out, and move to town and apply for relief or work relief. Or perhaps move to another State in quest of new and better opportunities to provide for their families.

Because of such drought conditions, the resources of the people were reduced and depleted year after year, each year forcing added numbers of the indigent groups into the towns. Commercial enterprises suffered from loss of business. The total assessed valuation for tax purposes of the county was reduced from $21,537,812 for the year 1930 to a low level of $11,931,265 for the year 1940.

While agricultural resources dwindled and conditions in general became more severe, and property valuations as returned by assessment became lower, legislature during each session has, by enactment of various relief measures, fixed duties and responsibilities upon governing bodies to provide funds by tax levies, for the relief and needs of indigents, and for the sponsorship of various types of work relief projects.

Taxes as a result have become more burdensome, while the ability of the farm and home owner to pay his taxes became greatly reduced. Income reduced. The exodus from the farm followed, and is still in progress, with the result that many farm homes have been abandoned and are now in the hands of various loan agencies and mortgage holders. Industrial resources are lacking.

The surviving farmers, who are still holding onto their homes, because of severe drought conditions are financially unable to provide jobs and pay wages to the group of needy people.

The Work Projects Administration, because of quota limitation, has been unable to assign all of the certified needy persons.

The county, operating under the State budget fund, is limited in providing funds by taxation, and there are no social or other agencies to supplement or assist in providing for fuel, shelter, clothing, medical, hospitalization, burial for direct relief cases, and for unassigned Work Projects Administration cases.

Because Valley County has completely exhausted its 1939 tax levy for such indigent relief and has exhausted its 1940 levy for such indigent relief to the legal limitations of the existing budget laws, and because it has no other funds available, it has been necessary to suspend all direct relief in Valley County.

The county board of supervisors has petitioned Governor Cochran to make an immediate study of the situation and the existing emergency and request Federal aid for such relief. Copies of such petition were sent to Nebraska members of the United States Senate and House of Representatives.

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[1] Population: 1930 census, 9,533; 1940 census, 8,153; loss, 1,380 (90 percent of loss is from rural areas).

The Federal stamp plan of commodity distribution has been studied and considered and found to be unworkable in its present form in Valley County, and request made for modification of the plan to make it workable in rural areas.

1940 census shows 1,598 farms, with 1,150 farm families and a 95 percent compliance with Agricultural Adjustment Administration. By September 1, 1940, approximately 250 Agricultural Adjustment Administration payments have been encumbered and assigned.

County case load, September 6, 1940.—240, O. A. A.; 39, A. D. C.; 6, blind; 187, F. S. A.; 101, W. P. A.; 15, direct relief; 37, border line. 495 families, of 3.26 persons per family, receiving commodity.

Estimated case load during winter 1940–41.—270, O. A. A.; 45, A. D. C.; 6, blind; 480, F. S. A.; 200, W. P. A.; 55, direct relief; 70, border line.

I believe, in order to discourage further exodus from the farms, Farm Security Administration relief should be made more certain during the ensuing 6 months. Corn should be distributed through the Surplus Commodities Corporation, as other commodities to persons certified for comodities, in order that foundation livestock can be saved and kept on the farms. The Federal food stamp plan should be streamlined and made workable in rural areas and counties without funds for direct relief for immediate relief purposes.

Financial status of Valley County, Sept. 10, 1940

Year	Assessed evaluation	Levy	Collection	Yield gas tax
		Mills	*Percent*	
1934	$13,931,854	4.00	98	$18,961.86
1935	13,492,189	4.50	98	18,750.52
1936	13,876,862	4.50	96	19,045.84
1937	13,789,279	5.00	92	18,890.28
1938	13,585.425	4.89	86	18,797.35
1939	13,690,045	4.51	65	19,439.74
1940	11,931,265	4.82		[1] 12,826.89

[1] Total for 8 months of 1940.

County budgets

Levy, legal limits	Fund	1939 levy	1939 budget	1940 levy	1940 budget
3.00	General	2.73	$52,670	3.00	$46,010
1.60	Bridge	.17	6,450	.20	6,520
1.70	Road [1]	[1].00	17,475	.00	25,805
.20	Mothers' pension	.04	650	.03	600
.30	Soldiers' aid	.05	700	.04	500
.25	Fair	.14	2,000	.15	2,000
1.00	Unemployment relief	1.00	13,790	1.00	15,735
Debt	Bonds and interest	.38	5,300	.40	5,000

[1] No levy for road fund purposes, such activities being financed from gas tax and auto license fees (approximately $8,300 from auto license fees).

NOTE.—Levy limitations for all county purposes and relief of poor (except old debts, by vote of people) maximum of 3.50 mills, and maximum constitutional limit (except old debts), for all purposes is 5 mills.

Total crop yield, 1934 to 1940

[In thousands of bushels]

	Corn			Wheat		
	Acres	Bushels	Average	Acres	Bushels	Average
			Bushels			*Bushels*
1934	95,190	19,038	0.2	6,838	6,838	1.0
1935	87,990	87,990	1.0	6,696	53,568	8.0
1936	102,720	205,440	2.0	8,117	162,340	20.0
1937	103,950	519,750	5.0	8,200	41,000	5.0
1938	90,230	1,263,220	14.0	10,050	100,500	10.0
1939	84,980	297,430	3.5	6,190	6,190	1.0
1940	75,000	[1] 375,000	[1] 5.0	4,100	4,100	1.0

[1] Estimated yield. Produced within irrigated area comprising about 8.000 acres. Irrigation in Valley County partially in operation in 1939, project having been completed in 1938. Corn yield on nonirrigated lands in 1940 estimated negligible. Valley County total area over 368,000 acres.

STATEMENT OF I. KLIMA, JR., COUNTY CLERK, VALLEY COUNTY, NEBR.

Mr. CURTIS. Mr. Klima, if you will just stand up. We won't take time for any oral testimony here. This paper will be submitted for our record. As a matter of information I would like to state this for the people present: This committee was created early this year to investigate the interstate migration of destitute persons. Now, that opened a broad field of agriculture, economy, and employment, so most anything can come under the roof in the way of testimony, but we are a legislative committee, the report of which is not due until January next, and that report will make some recommendations in regard to various types of legislation. We have been approached by a number of people since reaching the State on various suggestions to relieve the present extreme conditions in regard to needs and relief and so forth, here in Nebraska, that they must have this fall. All of that is outside the scope of this investigation, for which the House of Representatives has sent us here. That does not mean that as individual Congressmen, and myself particularly, we are not interested, and we shall continue to work through what channels there are. We are glad to have this statement, however, but I make that statement for the benefit of the others, so that they will know that we are not taking some facts here and not doing anything about it.

We thank you very much.

Mr. KLIMA. I thank you very much, Congressman.

(A paper, Excerpts on Sugar Beet Labor from Study—"Technological Changes in Agriculture and their Effects on Farm Employment," by J. E. Sharp and Clyde Johnson, was identified as an exhibit. The statement follows:

EXCERPTS ON SUGAR BEET LABOR FROM STUDY "TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGES IN AGRICULTURE AND THEIR EFFECTS ON FARM EMPLOYMENT," BY J. E. SHARP AND CLYDE JOHNSON

Work in the beet fields is a family matter with most in the family who are able to work participating. In the days before the passage of sugar-control legislation this included children frequently as young as 6 years of age. By the age of 11 the majority of the children were working in the beet fields. These children frequently put in the same hours as their parents—up to 14 or more hours per day. (Children's Bureau Publication No. 247.)

Inasmuch as it has been proposed to change the present law to relieve responsible persons from their responsibility of knowing the age of the child, we give from another source a description of the conditions under which they worked:

"The growing of sugar beets is today, and has been in the past, predicated upon child labor. The regulation of ages and hours of employment of children has been determined not by the rational needs of growing boys and girls but by a rate of pay so low that it forces the use of child labor.

"In 34 families of beet workers recently visited 85 percent of all children between 7 and 15 years of age and half of the mothers were field laborers. Twenty-three percent of these 90 children were below 10 years of age and more than 33 percent were under 11. This was true in spite of the fact that the fields were being cultivated under a contract specifying that no child under 11 years of age should be employed. It is obvious that no serious effort is made to eliminate young children.

"The following families will illustrate this point: One family of 11, the father, a 16-year-old boy, 4 girls aged 13, 12, 11, and 9, and a boy 7 years old were working in the fields, the mother and 3 younger children being at the house. In another family of 10, the father, 4 boys aged 14, 11, 9, and 8, and a girl 13 were working. In another family of 7, both father and mother, 2 boys, 8 and 9 years, and a girl 7 were working. There was a 5-year-older whose job was carrying the water jug along for the family. The one remaining member of the family, a 3-year-old baby, stayed from 6 a. m. to 7 p. m. under an improvised tent, a piece of canvas stretched across some boards on the bank of an irrigation ditch. The mother said, "I hate to leave her there, but what can we do? Our house is 5 miles away, and we don't have much money with which to buy gas." When I stumbled on to the tent—the big weeds obscured it from view—the baby was crying bitterly. Well might she, for it was nearly noontime and the sun was beating down fiercely. It was almost impossible for her to stay in the tent because of the heat.

"The hours young children work in the fields are cruelly long. The 12-hour day for children is usual—from 6 a. m. to 7 p. m. with an hour off at noon. In some families the youngest children are allowed extra time off in the middle of the day when the sun is hottest, but frequently they must work as long as the adults do. In blocking and thinning time there is pressure for the work to be completed promptly, in order to give the beets to be left the greatest possible chance for growth. During this time the limit of the work day is fixed by the rising and going of the sun. Let it not be forgotten that the sun in a dry-land country can beat down with intense fierceness. At pulling and topping time the day is not quite so long, but this only because daylight hours are fewer. After the prorate is lifted, the pressure to get the beets out and to market is great. One school official said, 'I have seen children topping beets at night, when it gets dark they back an automoble into the field and by aid of its headlights keep on topping as long as they are able to stand it.' " (Statement on condition relating to sugar beet workers in Colorado by Charles E. Gibbons, representing the National Child Labor Committee at hearing on the Sugar Stabilization Agreement, 1933.)

With the enactment of sugar-control legislation child labor was largely done away with. According to the Children's Bureau, in the sample it investigated, the percentage of children between 6 and 14 years working in the beet fields fell from 43 percent of the total number of 1934 to 19 percent in 1935, a decrease of more than 50 percent.

This decrease in child labor, of course, affects the income of the family and partly offsets the increase in wage per acre given the worker under the two sugar acts.

ANOTHER PROBLEM OF SURPLUSES

There is a tendency for a large surplus of beet-field workers to accumulate. This results from the fact, generally characteristic in the Rocky Mountain area, once a beet-field worker always a beet-field worker. Work in the beet fields, which is found practically to preclude other kinds of employment, also precludes acquiring any other skill. On account of both the low income, inadequate in itself to afford subsistence and the interruption of the school year at its beginning and at its end, children of beet-field workers are nearly always retarded in school. Accordingly in these families, which are usually large (averaging 6.4 persons in the sample of 946 families investigated by the Children's Bureau), the children grow up to be beet-field workers like their parents.

This accumulating surplus of labor is of very great convenience to the industry, unless the matter of relief be contemplated for which, it must be admitted, other people than those engaged in the industry pay. The surplus tends to keep wages down to any limit permitted by law, can be used to fight the formation of a strong agricultural workers' union, which might hold the threat of raising wages and improving working conditions, and assures that the various operations in the production of beets will be done with optimum speed. We have already shown that the production of the quotas, which the beet-sugar industry has succeeded in establishing for itself, depends on the existence of the present low wage, or upon a redistribution of income between processor and grower, or upon a higher price for sugar, and that with the present reduced purchasing power of a large mass of consumers a higher price cannot be charged for sugar, without defeating itself through reduced consumption. Hence the interest of the processing companies in keeping the wage as low as possible and the surplus of workers large enough for safety. It is charged by the workers that processing companies connive with many growers to induce workers to come from other States even when a large surplus of labor exists locally. This, they charge, is widely done in order to prevent the growth of the agricultural workers' union and is used as a device for discriminating against members of the union.

The result of the labor surplus is to destroy much of the benefit which the wage increases under the Sugar Act were intended to give the workers. This arises from the fact that the optimum time for a particular agricultural operation is short and both growers and processors are interested in seeing that the operation is accomplished with in that time. Accordingly, the number of acres per family tends to decrease, until there are enough workers on the land to assure all the speed that can contribute to yield. It is stated in Children's Bureau Publication No. 247 that—

"In 1935 the median number of acres of sugar beets worked at the thinning process by the 746 families reporting acreage worked was 18, half of these families handling more and half less than this amount. The variation in the amount of acreage handled by the individual families was even wider than the variation in time worked, the greater variation depending, to a considerable extent, on the different number of workers in the families. The wide spread in the number of acres of sugar beets thinned in 1935 by the different families is shown by the following distribution:

	Percent
Less than 10 acres per family	20
10, less than 20	36
20, less than 30	19
30 acres and more	25

"There was considerable variation in the median number of acres per family for different areas corresponding with variation in number of workers. The lowest was in southern Colorado with 9 acres per family. The highest was in southern Michigan with 36 acres per family, where the agricultural workers union had at that time (1935) a collective agreement with the farmers."

It is customary, in order to assure that the various operations in sugar-beet work will be performed within the optimum time, for the contract to provide that the worker under contract must himself hire additional workers if necessary for this purpose.

This results in the extremely long hours that beet workers work, for brief but excruciating periods. The workers dislike the penalty of giving up any of their small remuneration. The hours are, therefore, "from kin see to can't see," with the shorter daylight of the topping season eked out with the headlights of automobiles. (They generally have automobiles which they insist are necessary to look for work. These the relief authorities frequently compel them to mortgage before they can qualify for relief.)

In all but two of the principal beet-growing areas, wage increases occurred in 1935 as a result of the passage of the First Sugar Act. However, earnings per family did not increase significantly except in southern Michigan. In fact in some areas decreases in earnings occurred. This, of course, was due to decrease in the acreage per family. The Children's Bureau investigated the earnings in 10 areas in 1934 and 6 areas in 1935. The areas in Colorado and western Nebraska are not given for 1935 for the reason that they were visited before the harvest was finished. The median yearly income from beet work reported for the families investigated was:

	1934	1935
10 areas	$310	----------
6 areas (including southern Michigan)	360	$340
Southern Michigan	430	600

It would appear that the union accomplished more in the way of "effectuating the principle" that the industry "should be expected to guarantee that it will be a good employer" than did the act.

Seven families out of eight in all 10 areas investigated reported some income in addition to that from beet labor or from relief. However, for families that had such income between the end of the 1934 harvest and that of 1935, the median amount was $51.

"The very low plane of living afforded beet laborers by the incomes they received is suggested by their income per family member.

"Sixty percent of the beet laborers' families for whom information on money income was reported on a per capita basis received less than $100 per person in the year, exclusive of relief. The amount was $75 or less for 50 percent of the families reporting, and less than $50 for 30 percent. Only 4 percent of the families reporting had $250 or more annual money income per capita, an amount that might be expected to prove sufficient to meet the money cost of providing for the reasonable needs of the families.

"A number of families reported the amount of cash on hand at the end of the 1934 working season after bills accumulated in providing for their day-to-day needs had been met but before they had bought necessary supplies for the winter. Of families giving this information, 38 percent reported that they had no cash on hand after paying such bills, 31 percent had less than $60, and only 26 percent reported having $60 or more; for 4 percent some cash was on hand, but the amount was not reported." (Children's Bureau Publication No. 247.)

RELIEF

Quite obviously, with such a situation prevailing, relief statistics can be of interest or significance, not as demonstrating destitution but solely as indicating what was done about it.

"The proportion of the beet workers' families that were on relief at some time during the year in the areas visited ranged from 37 to 97 percent. The highest proportion of families receiving relief, 97 percent, was for the Arkansas Valley in southern Colorado, where average beet acreages worked were small, wage rates for other work were low, and a water shortage had restricted crops the preceding season. The proportion of families receiving relief in the different areas is shown in table 26. (Table omitted due to lack of space.) The relationship between prevalence of relief and median yearly income on a family basis in the various areas is apparent, but the proportions shown to be receiving relief sometime during the year reflect also differences in policy of granting relief to beet workers. * * *

"The Western Slope area of Colorado was conspicuous for the combination of low family income and the small proportion receiving assistance from relief agencies. In this area the emergency relief administration of one county expected the sugar company of the locality to advance credit to the sugar-beet laborers through the winter aginst their next season's earnings, even for families that did not have prospects of earning enough to provide a bare living for their families during both the summer and winter seasons. The reason advanced for this relief policy was that if relief was generally given to families of beet workers, the long-established custom of the sugar company of advancing credit to the beet workers would be threatened and the company's sense of responsibility for the families lessened. The company did make small advances to many families, but the relief given to them was limited for the most part to clothing for school children. The situation of many of these families was almost desperate. In at least one other area the sugar company advanced some credit against the next season's earnings to certain workers in the winter of 1934–35. In other areas company credit advances or the guaranteeing of store credit through the winter had been customary in previous years when wage rates were higher and public relief less general, but had been discontinued at the time of this study.

"The local prejudice in many beet-producing localities against beet workers, particularly the 'Mexicans,' as both Spanish-Americans and Mexicans were referred to, made it difficult for them to obtain needed relief. It was common for townspeople in the beet-producing localities to feel that 'the sugar company brought them in, let the sugar company care for them,' and the result was that some beet workers in serious need were left to shift for themselves. The policy of relief administrators regarding the extent to which beet workers should be denied relief on the ground that they were able to get some credit advanced against their next season's earnings differed from locality to locality. For these reasons some families did not obtain relief that they might have received if they had not been beet workers or if they had lived elsewhere. The penniless state of many families not receiving relief during the year is suggested by the fact that more than a fourth of the families not obtaining relief had no cash on hand after the 1934 harvest pay day to start the winter, and nearly another fourth had less than $55. For many families this meant existence on store credit, which was even more meager than existence on relief.

"In more than one area relief was provided for Mexicans on a different budget basis from that applied to other families, and in one State a different wage rate was paid for common labor on 'Mexican' relief projects (25 cents an hour) than was paid on similar work-relief projects (45 cents an hour). In one important beet-growing country it was reported that the community prejudice against granting beet workers relief on the same basis as 'white' families was so strong that all milk allowances were cut off for Mexican families.

"Relief policies in beet-growing areas also affected the migration of families. In Minnesota, for instance, it was reported that families of beet workers had difficulty in obtaining relief in the rural counties where they worked and that they customarily returned each fall to St. Paul or Minneapolis, where relief was generally available.

"It was also reported by a number of families that since it was easier to get relief in Colorado and Montana than in Wyoming they were returning to the former States instead of remaining in Wyoming, as they might otherwise have done" (Children's Bureau Publication No. 247, pp. 71 and 72).

CARE AND HEALTH OF CHILDREN

"Children in the beet laborers' families lacked not only proper food, suitable clothing, and decent housing, but also the care of their mothers when the mothers worked in the beet fields. The work of mothers offered particular problems of child care when there were one or more children under 6 years of age. In 442 families the mothers were reported to have worked in the beet fields in 1935, and 295 of these mothers had children under 6 years of age. About a fourth of these 295 mothers took their young children to the fields with them. Babies would be left lying at the edge of the field or in the family car, or if old enough to walk would play and wander about with little attention from their busy families. It was reported that a few of the working mothers left the babies and the young children at home in the care of an older child or an elderly person. In nearly a third of the families in which mothers of children under 6 years of age worked in the fields the only caretaker of such children during the absence of the mother was a child, himself under 12 years of age; although in two-fifths of them the caretaker was an older person, often an older child or a grandmother. The unreasonable burdens placed on some children and the inadequacy of the care they could give is illustrated by the case of a little 9-year-old girl who, though seriously lame from infantile paralysis, was left in sole charge of three active younger children, a boy of 6, a girl of 3, and a baby 1½ years of age.

"The caretaker of the young children frequently also had housekeeping duties, although sometimes in large families the mother would leave the fields earlier than the other workers in order to prepare dinner for the family. However, the hours spent in the fields even by working mothers with children under 6 years of age were usually very long. Only about one-sixth of these mothers worked in the beet fields for less than 8 hours a day at thinning, for instance, and more than one-third usually spent 12 or more hours a day in field labor during their work at this process.

"The Spanish-speaking families were much less likely to have the mothers of young children working in the fields than the Russian-Germans. In 1935, 83 percent of the mothers of other female heads of the Russian-German families worked in the beet fields, in contrast to 33 percent of the mothers in the Spanish-speaking families. The proportions were similar for the families with children under 6 years of age and for those with only older children.

"Illness among children and adults in the families was frequently reported, but often they did not receive the medical care needed. Many families would call and pay a doctor if the emergency seemed great enough to justify the expenditure, but often it seemed impossible for them to get a doctor when they had no money. In numerous localities families reported that they were able to get some free medical service through the relief agency in the winter when they were on relief, but that they could not obtain any when they were off relief and living on store credit. The suffering and worry so caused was great. Mothers went through childbirth without medical care, and children whose parents knew them to be suffering from serious diseases were not receiving badly needed medical service" (Children's Bureau Publication No. 247, pp. 79 and 80).

The conditions of work and the lack of income have brought personal disaster to the utmost to the beet workers and their families in every phase of their lives—in health, in education, in status, and in opportunity. All the conditions characterizing their lives—housing, sanitation, clothing, etc.—correspond with these described.

Most of the numerous investigations of the beet workers were made before the enactment of sugar-control legislation. Since then it has appeared that those who might be interested have chiefly been waiting for the Sugar Act to work its benign magic, for the industry to prove that it will be a "good employer." We quote from the summary of another investigation, made in Weld County, Colo.—deep center of the beet-sugar industry—a phase of which extended to a later date, February 1937:

"1. A survey was made of 25 percent of the rural-residing Spanish-speaking cases which received emergency relief in Weld County, Colo., at any time during the period February to October 1935, inclusive, and which had a head whose usual occupation was beet labor or who took employment at beet labor upon leaving the relief rolls. This sample was composed of 231 cases, of which 192 were located as still resident in the county at the time of the survey in the spring of 1936.

"2. The average size of the case was 5.6 persons.

"5. Average income per case from all sources (excluding the value of certain items furnished) was $436 from March 1935 to February 1936; half of this income came from beet labor, 40 percent was supplied by a public agency.

"6. Each case received public assistance during 1935–36, 6 months out of the 12; the average amount received was $172.

"A follow-up study of the relief records of these cases was made early in 1937, covering the period March 1936 through February 1937. A record of public assistance was found for 135, or 70 percent of the 192 cases. It is not known whether the other 30 percent had no need of relief, were not accepted by public agencies, or had moved out of the county during the second year. These 135 cases received an average of $67 in public aid, excluding surplus commodities, for an average period of slightly over 3 months."—(Beet Workers on Relief in Weld County, Colorado, by Olaf F. Larson, State supervisor of rural research; Colorado State Agricultural Experiment Station, Fort Collins, Colo., and rural section, Division of Social Research, Federal W. P. A.)

INFANT MORTALITY

This investigation secured some information with regard to infant mortality among beet workers. From the number of births which had occurred in the unbroken families of those investigated and the number of deaths which had occurred of children under 1 year of age, it appears that the infant mortality over the entire period of the family histories of these cases was 120.3 per thousand live births.[1] This compares with an infant mortality of 75 per 1,000 for Colorado in 1936 and 57 per 1,000 in the same year, for the United States, including, of course, all areas and groups of substandard living. It is estimated that the infant mortality rate among those of adequate standard of living is but a small fraction of that characterizing the country as a whole.

The small increases in the wage of beet workers since 1935, even if not affset by reduction of acreage, nowhere near span the gap between the income received and that required for subsistence. Without this, any small increase in income is, for the most part, relief of relief rather than relief of the workers. In the meantime, any hope of statesmen, however fervent, that the industry can ever guarantee that it will be a "good employer" would appear to be an illusion that "keeps the word of promise to the ear, but breaks it to the hope."

TESTIMONY OF MR. AND MRS. ELMER HAWTHORNE, OF HOLBROOK, NEBR.

Mr. CURTIS. Mr. Hawthorne, you will give your name and address to the reporter, please.

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Elmer Francis Hawthorne, Holbrook, Nebr.

Mr. CURTIS. In Furnas County?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Yes, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. Mr. Hawthorne, where were you born?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. In Wright County, Iowa.

Mr. PARSONS. Have you any children?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Yes, sir; three.

Mr. PARSONS. What are their ages?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Eight, six, and five.

Mr. PARSONS. How many of them are in school?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. All of them.

Mr. PARSONS. How long have you and Mrs. Hawthorne lived in Nebraska, just approximately?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Seven years.

Mr. PARSONS. When did you come to Nebraska this last time, or have you been here continuously for 7 years?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. No.

Mr. PARSONS. When did you come into Nebraska this last time?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. I came to Nebraska the last time February 18, 1940.

Mr. PARSONS. Where did you come from, then?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. I came from Marcus, Iowa; Cherokee County.

Mr. PARSONS. How long had you been in Iowa?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Two years.

Mr. PARSONS. Where had your family been?

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[1] This probably should be 118 per thousand.

Mr. HAWTHORNE. My family was with me from September of 1938 until May 20, 1939.

Mr. PARSONS. Where did they go then?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Then they came back here and stayed with my folks and her folks last summer, and they came back with me last October 5, 1939, and we stayed there in Iowa, all together, until February 18, 1940.

Mr. PARSONS. Where are your folks and Mrs. Hawthorne's folks located?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. My wife's folks are the W. E. Clarks, of Cozad, Nebr.

Mr. PARSONS. Where are yours?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. My folks live at Holbrook, Nebr., where we are living now.

Mr. PARSONS. Why did you go to Iowa?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. For work.

Mr. PARSONS. How long did that job last?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Well, I had work, farm work, up until 1939, May 12, or the 15th. I couldn't just quite state the exact date.

Mr. PARSONS. In May 1939, was your family with you?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Yes, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. What happened then?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Well, on April 2d or 3d, the sheriff of Humboldt County——

Mr. PARSONS. Humboldt County, Iowa?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Yes, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. What town is the county seat?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. The county seat is Dakota City, Iowa.

Mr. PARSONS. What did the sheriff do?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. He served a writ on me that my family and I would not be eligible for help whatsoever in that county, the said county of Humboldt County, and that they wished us to depart from that county.

Mr. PARSONS. Do you have a copy of that writ?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. I lost the copy, but I have the copy of Cherokee's. [Witness looks for paper.] I thought the copy was here, but I have not got the copy. But I have got witnesses to prove it.

Mr. PARSONS. At that time had you been on relief?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. No.

Mr. PARSONS. At any time in the couple of years before that, had you been?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. No.

Mr. PARSONS. Are you sure you understood that writ requested you to leave?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. It wasn't a writ to leave your house or property?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. No.

Mr. PARSONS. And for some time before that you hadn't been on relief in Humboldt County, Iowa?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. No, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. Had you ever been on relief there?

Mr. Hawthorne. I had been on relief in Nebraska, but never in Iowa.

Mr. Parsons. Never in Iowa?

Mr. Hawthorne. No, sir.

Mr. Parsons. And how long did you say you had been there when you got this writ?

Mr. Hawthorne. I had been there from July 1938 until May or April 1—up to that time.

Mr. Parsons. Not quite a year?

Mr. Hawthorne. No.

Mr. Parsons. What did you do about this writ?

Mr. Hawthorne. Well, I took it home and showed it to my wife.

Mr. Parsons. Well, had you lost your job at that time?

Mr. Hawthorne. No; I was working and drawing $40 a month and a house.

Mr. Parsons. Did you talk to your boss about this writ?

Mr. Hawthorne. No; I never brought it over to him, but I talked to the wife after I got through working that day. I never said a word to the man, whatsoever.

Mr. Parsons. Did your employer have anything to do with having you served?

Mr. Hawthorne. I don't know.

Mr. Parsons. How much longer would you have worked for him there?

Mr. Hawthorne. I was hired for 1 year.

Mr. Parsons. The sheriff knew that your year would be out in July?

Mr. Hawthorne. My year would be out in 1940, March 1.

Mr. Parsons. March 1?

Mr. Hawthorne. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. Had you ever been in any trouble in Iowa?

Mr. Hawthorne. Never was.

Mr. Parsons. Had your family or your people ever lived there?

Mr. Hawthorne. Yes, sir; my father—I was born and raised in Wright County, and we lived from 1912, that I remember of, 1912 to 1924 in Wright County and Humboldt County.

Mr. Parsons. Your father had lived there?

Mr. Hawthorne. My father and mother.

Mr. Parsons. Did your father, during that time, own any property?

Mr. Hawthorne. Yes, sir; he did.

Mr. Parsons. How much property?

Mr. Hawthorne. Well, I would say it was right close onto four hundred and some acres.

Mr. Parsons. He doesn't own it now?

Mr. Hawthorne. He does not.

Mr. Parsons. Did he sell it, or lose it through foreclosure?

Mr. Hawthorne. He lost it.

Mr. Parsons. But during that period of time he paid taxes on that much property?

Mr. Hawthorne. Yes, sir. My father has told me he could show he has paid around a thousand dollars a year in Wright County or Humboldt, I couldn't say which, but I think it was Wright County.

Mr. Parsons. A thousand dollars a year for how many years?

Mr. Hawthorne. I don't know how many years.

Mr. Parsons. Had you told anyone that when your year's job was up you were going to ask for relief?

Mr. Hawthorne. I never expected to.

Mr. Parsons. Did you have any other job in mind?

Mr. Hawthorne. No; I didn't.

Mr. Parsons. Do you think you could have found one, after observing the conditions?

Mr. Hawthorne. Well, I never had any thought of trying to hunt for another job, because I was well satisfied with the job I was on at the time.

Mr. Parsons. Was your boss going to let you go at the end of the year, or was he going to keep you?

Mr. Hawthorne. He said as long as I like it, I could stay as long as I wanted to.

Mr. Parsons. Was this writ signed by the sheriff?

Mr. Hawthorne. It was signed by the supervisors of said county of Humboldt.

Mr. Parsons. Where were you when this writ was served upon you?

Mr. Hawthorne. I was out in the field working right there. I had just gone to the end of the row, the next row from the house there.

Mr. Parsons. Was Mrs. Hawthorne there?

Mr. Hawthorne. No; she wasn't.

Mr. Parsons. Where was she?

Mr. Hawthorne. She was at our house, where she was living.

Mr. Parsons. You showed the writ to her?

Mr. Hawthorne. I did at noon, when I came in. It was served between 10 and 11 o'clock that morning.

Mr. Parsons. Now, did this writ just plainly say for you to leave, or did it say that if you didn't have work you wouldn't get any relief there?

Mr. Hawthorne. Well, according to the way it said—may I read just what the other one said? It's the same one.

Mr. Parsons. Oh, that is what I want. You have a copy? May I see it?

(Witness hands document to Mr. Parsons.)

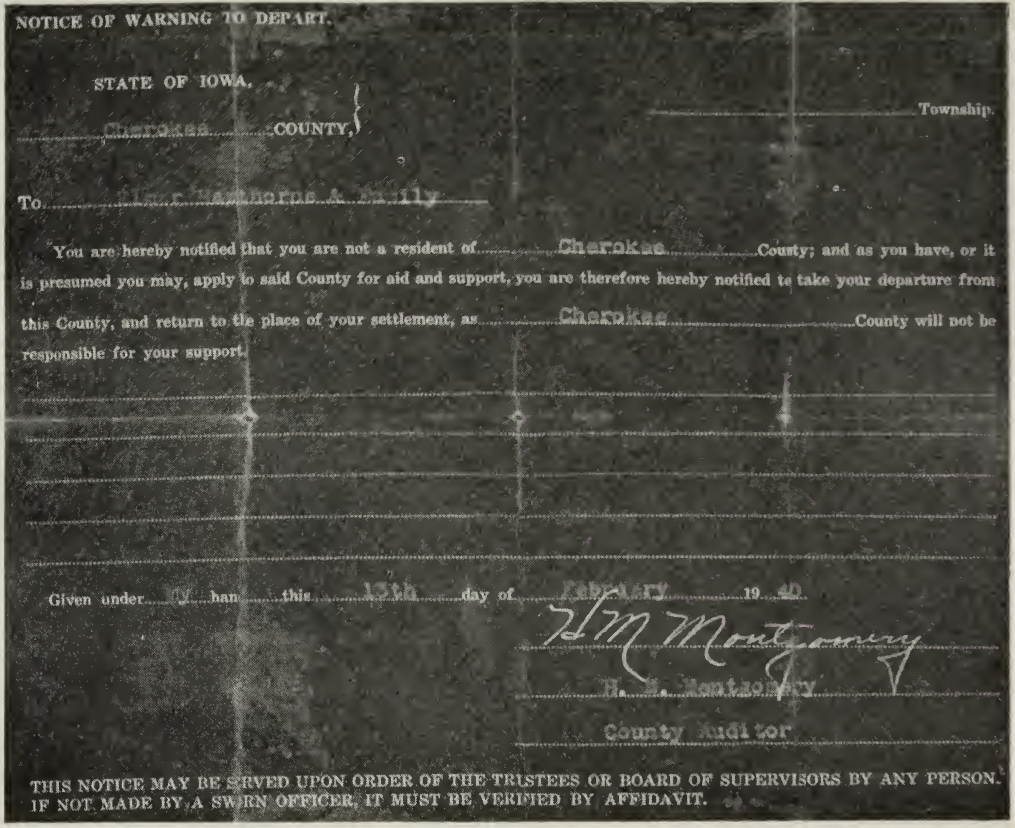
Mr. Parsons (reading):

> You are hereby notified that you are not a resident of Cherokee County, and as you have or it is presumed you may apply to said county for aid and support, you are therefore hereby notified to take your departure from this county and return to the place of your settlement, as Cherokee County will not be responsible for your support.

(See fig. 1, on opposite page.)

This is signed by the county auditor. Had you indicated to anybody you were to go on relief?

Mr. Hawthorne. No; I never thought of going on relief until the time when I asked for relief in Cherokee County; but I never did in Humboldt County.



NOTICE OF WARNING TO DEPART.

STATE OF IOWA,
Cherokee COUNTY,

Township.

To [illegible] & Family

You are hereby notified that you are not a resident of Cherokee County; and as you have, or it is presumed you may, apply to said County for aid and support, you are therefore hereby notified to take your departure from this County, and return to the place of your settlement, as Cherokee County will not be responsible for your support.

Given under my hand this 15th day of February 19 40

H M Montgomery

H. M. Montgomery

County Auditor

THIS NOTICE MAY BE SERVED UPON ORDER OF THE TRUSTEES OR BOARD OF SUPERVISORS BY ANY PERSON. IF NOT MADE BY A SWORN OFFICER, IT MUST BE VERIFIED BY AFFIDAVIT.

Mr. PARSONS. This is from Cherokee County?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Yes; that is from Cherokee. I haven't the copy from Humboldt.

Mr. PARSONS. You got two of them?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Yes, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. I see. Now, Mrs. Hawthorne, you knew about the serving of this writ?

Mrs. HAWTHORNE. Yes. I didn't know about it until he brought it to me at noon.

Mr. PARSONS. What did you do?

Mrs. HAWTHORNE. Well, I was puzzled. I didn't know what to do.

Mr. PARSONS. Where did you decide to go, then?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Well, we stayed there until I lost my job, in May, and my wife went to her folks, in Dawson County.

Mr. PARSONS. Well, Mr. Hawthorne, did the serving of this writ have anything to do with losing your job?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. I believe it did; yes; because the man was very nice toward me in every way, up until after the time this was served, and from that day on he acted different. Right now that man is owing me money for the last month's work.

Mr. PARSONS. Couldn't you have gained a settlement in Iowa if you continued your job there?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. No.

Mr. PARSONS. So you left the State?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. I left the State in February 1940.

Mr. PARSONS. Where did you go?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. I went to Holbrook, Nebr., where my folks lived.

Mr. PARSONS. And Mrs. Hawthorne, where did you go?

Mrs. HAWTHORNE. I went to Dawson County, when I left him in May.

Mr. PARSONS. That is, to Cozad?

Mrs. HAWTHORNE. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. How long did you stay there?

Mrs. HAWTHORNE. From May until October 1939, when I went back and joined him in Marcus, Iowa, in Cherokee County.

Mr. PARSONS. Well, then, you didn't stay in Nebraska; you went back to another county in Iowa?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. After I got through, lost my job there.

Mr. PARSONS. Now, where did you——

Mr. HAWTHORNE (interposing). That is, the job I was working on at the time, the one at Humboldt.

Mr. PARSONS. In Iowa?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. Well, now, you came back to Holbrook, Nebr.; then did you go into Iowa again?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. No. Well, I have been back there this summer a few times, but I have never had no work there.

Mr. PARSONS. When did you go to Marcus, in Cherokee County, Iowa?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. I went there the last of September in 1939.

Mr. PARSONS. And you haven't been back there since?

Mr. Hawthorne. Well, I was in Cherokee County from September 1939 until February 18, 1940.

Mr. Parsons. Yes; and that was after your experience in Humboldt County?

Mr. Hawthorne. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. You had this experience in Humboldt County when they asked you to leave the county, and you went to Holbrook?

Mr. Hawthorne. I never went myself.

Mr. Parsons. Mrs. Hawthorne went to Cozad and you went——

Mr. Hawthorne (interposing). No, I just went around Iowa trying to pick up work.

Mr. Parsons. When did you land in Cherokee?

Mr. Hawthorne. September 1939.

Mr. Parsons. What kind of job did you have there?

Mr. Hawthorne. I worked for the West Iowa Telephone Co. up until around November, and then I worked for the Western Public Service Co., putting in some line, for about a month. I went back to work in December, and up until the 10th of January 1940, worked for the West Iowa.

Mr. Parsons Did your employment end then?

Mr. Hawthorne. Yes; we was done there.

Mr. Parsons. What was that date?

Mr. Hawthorne. We got through the 10th of January 1940.

Mr. Parsons. What wages did you draw during this time, working for the telephone company and the Western Public Service?

Mr. Hawthorne. Pretty near $300; I couldn't just give how much it was.

Mr. Parsons. Did you have any money when your employment ran out January 10?

Mr. Hawthorne. No; I didn't, just enough to carry us on there about two weeks and a half after I lost out.

Mr. Parsons. Then what did you do?

Mr. Hawthorne. I went, the 12th of January this year, I went down and filed for unemployment compensation.

Mr. Parsons. Did you get it?

Mr. Hawthorne. I did not until just here in July.

Mr. Parsons. For what reason was it held up, do you know?

Mr. Hawthorne. Because they had nothing there up until about—it came out in July, as I understood it.

Mr. Parsons. How did you get along the balance of January and February, after your savings were exhausted?

Mr. Hawthorne. Well, Cherokee County, after I went down there and asked for help, they gave me one order for groceries, or an order of commodities, and then we had something in the house to last us until February 18, and then we went back to my parents at Holbrook and lived with them.

Mr. Parsons. Before you went back, did you get another writ served on you?

Mr. Hawthorne. The one from Cherokee County.

Mr. Parsons. The one I read here?

Mr. Hawthorne. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. Dated the 13th day of February 1940?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Yes, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. When this auditor made a finding you were not a resident of Cherokee County, did he call you in for any investigation?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. No.

Mr. PARSONS. Did you ever have any hearings?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. No.

Mr. PARSONS. Did you tell them where you had been or what your intentions were or where you claimed your home was?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. No, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. And you have been in Furnas County or Holbrook since that time?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Most of the time. I have been trying to find work.

Mr. PARSONS. You have been making that your headquarters?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. How much work have you had?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. I would say I have had about 2½ or 3 weeks' work since January 10.

Mr. PARSONS. Have you received any relief here in Nebraska?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. I have.

Mr. PARSONS. From what agency or department did you get that?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Well, from Dawson County, and some from Furnas County.

Mr. PARSONS. In Furnas County, you went to the county commissioners?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Well, I first went to Mrs. Woodmency, of Furnas County.

Mr. PARSONS. She is the relief director?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Yes, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. What did they give you there?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Well, they said that I belonged in Dawson County.

Mr. PARSONS. What did Dawson County say?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. They said that I had lost my residence in that county when I went to Iowa.

Mr. PARSONS. At any rate, Iowa told you to leave, and the burden of helping you out fell on Nebraska, is that right?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Yes, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. Do you think it is a fair statement to make that, if Iowa hadn't served this writ on you, you would have gotten along on private jobs and stayed off relief?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Yes; I believe I could have held my job right where I was, at the place where the man served the writ on me that morning.

Mr. PARSONS. You are in good health, are you?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Yes, sir.

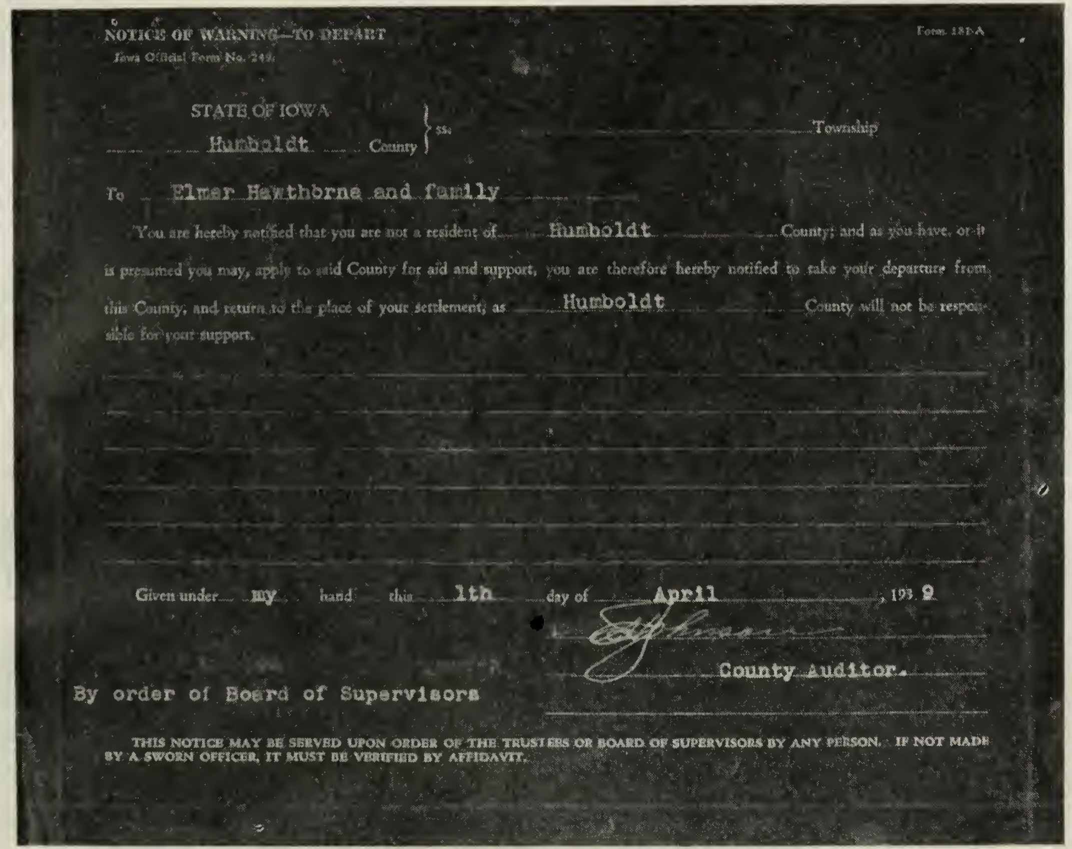
Mr. PARSONS. Are your parents able to help you?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. They are not.

Mr. PARSONS. Are they able to get along for themselves?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. They are not.

Mr. PARSONS. Well, are they on any kind of assistance?



NOTICE OF WARNING—TO DEPART

Iowa Official Form No. 248

Form 181-A

STATE OF IOWA }
Humboldt County } ss. Township

To Elmer Hawthorne and family

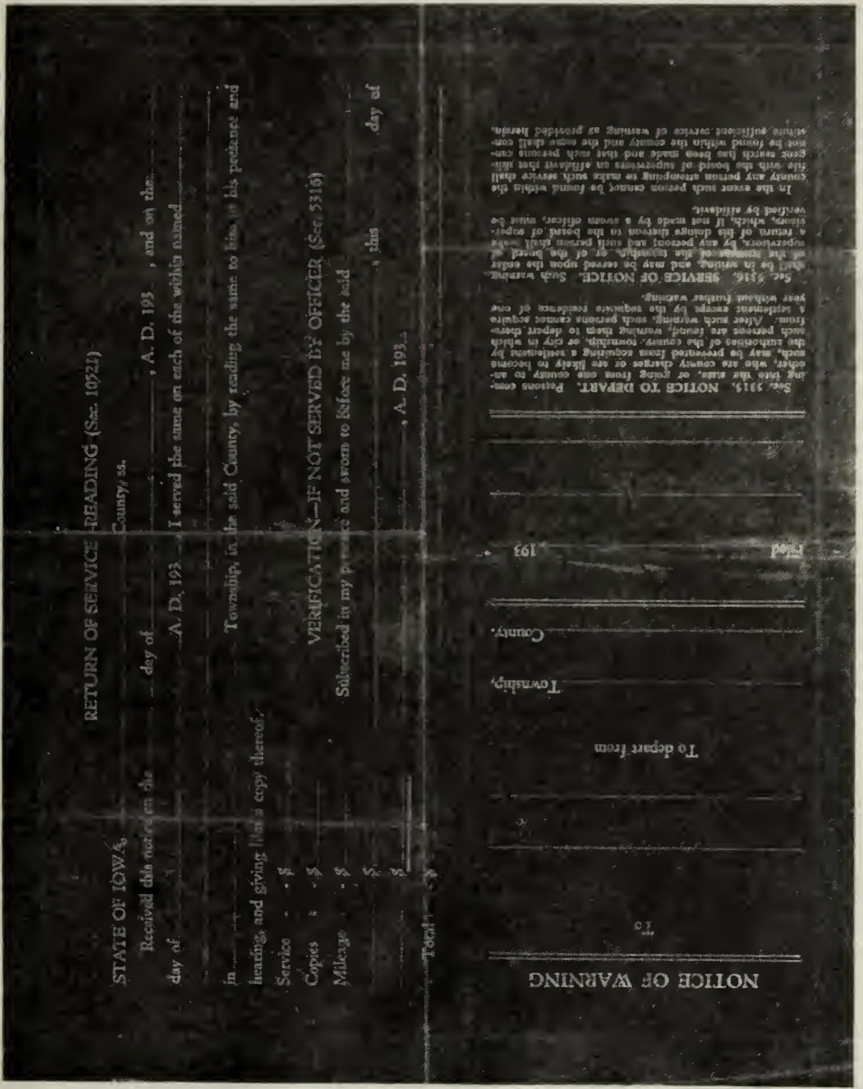
You are hereby notified that you are not a resident of Humboldt County; and as you have, or it is presumed you may, apply to said County for aid and support, you are therefore hereby notified to take your departure from this County, and return to the place of your settlement, as Humboldt County will not be responsible for your support.

Given under my hand this 1th day of April, 193 9

County Auditor.

By order of Board of Supervisors

THIS NOTICE MAY BE SERVED UPON ORDER OF THE TRUSTEES OR BOARD OF SUPERVISORS BY ANY PERSON. IF NOT MADE BY A SWORN OFFICER, IT MUST BE VERIFIED BY AFFIDAVIT.



RETURN OF SERVICE—READING (Sec. 10521)

STATE OF IOWA, ______________ County, ss.

Received this notice on the ______ day of ______________, A. D. 193__, and on the ______ day of ______________ A. D. 193__ I served the same on each of the within named ______________________________

in ______________ Township, in the said County, by reading the same to him in his presence and hearing, and giving him a copy thereof.

Service	$
Copies	$
Mileage	$
	$
	$
Total	$

VERIFICATION—IF NOT SERVED BY OFFICER (Sec. 5316)

Subscribed in my presence and sworn to before me by the said ______________ ______________, this ______ day of ______________, A. D. 193__

NOTICE OF WARNING

To

____

____

To depart from

______________________ Township,

______________________ County.

Filed ______________ 193__

____

____

Sec. 5315. NOTICE TO DEPART. Persons coming into the state, or going from one county to another, who are county charges or are likely to become such, may be prevented from acquiring a settlement by the authorities of the county, township, or city in which such persons are found, warning them to depart therefrom. After such warning, such persons cannot acquire a settlement except by the requisite residence of one year without further warning.

Sec. 5316. SERVICE OF NOTICE. Such warning shall be in writing, and may be served upon the order of the trustees of the township, or of the board of supervisors, by any person; and such person shall make a return of his doings thereon to the board of supervisors, which, if not made by a sworn officer, must be verified by affidavit.

In the event such person cannot be found within the county any person attempting to make such service shall file with the board of supervisors an affidavit that diligent search has been made and that such persons cannot be found within the county and the same shall constitute sufficient service of warning as provided herein.

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Yes, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. What is it, old-age assistance?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Yes, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. Is there any work available around there?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. No; there isn't.

Mr. PARSONS. Are there any jobs available on the farms?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. No, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. For the purpose of the record, why aren't there any jobs on the farms?

Mr. HAWTHORNE. Because there are no crops.

Mr. PARSONS. Mr. Hawthorne, I am glad you and Mrs. Hawthorne came here. I think your testimony is very much in point. It is the problem that should be investigated by this committee, particularly with the legal requirements of the settlement laws and that situation which exists.

Mr. HAWTHORNE. I would like to say one thing: If we could have stayed there in Iowa, my wife would be in better health, better than here in Nebraska. She has asthma very bad, but was feeling very fine in Iowa. It was costing us quite a little bit when we lived in Cozad, Nebr., before we went out there, for doctor bills, but after we was in Iowa, we never spent over $3 for doctor bills for her health.

Mr. PARSONS. I would like for the reporter to identify this writ and make it a part of the record.

(A photostatic copy of a writ of departure from Cherokee County, Iowa, to Elmer Hawthorne and family, was identified as an exhibit and appears on p. 1694–A).

Mr. PARSONS. That is all.

(After the hearing Mr. Hawthorne sent the committee the "Notice of Warning" received from officials of Humboldt County, Iowa. Photostat of this, front and back, is shown on pp. 1697–A and 1697–B.)

TESTIMONY OF MR. AND MRS. AMADO BACA, OF LA SALLE, COLO.

The CHAIRMAN. Mr. and Mrs. Baca. Give your name, please.

Mr. BACA. Amado Baca, La Salle, Colo.

The CHAIRMAN. And this is your wife here?

Mr. BACA. Yes.

The CHAIRMAN. What is your first name?

Mrs. BACA. Predicanda.

The CHAIRMAN. You are Spanish?

Mr. BACA. Yes; we are Spanish-Americans.

The CHAIRMAN. How old are you?

Mr. BACA. I am 24 years old.

Mrs. BACA. I am 20.

The CHAIRMAN. How long have you been married?

Mr. BACA. About a couple of months.

The CHAIRMAN. Where do you live now?

Mr. BACA. We live at La Salle, Colo.

The CHAIRMAN. What do you do? What is your work?

Mr. BACA. I work as a beet worker.

The CHAIRMAN. Where were you born?

Mr. Baca. I was born in New Mexico.

The Chairman. And where were you born?

Mrs. Baca. I was born in Colorado.

The Chairman. Did you meet down there in New Mexico, or did you meet in Colorado?

Mr. Baca. No; we met in Colorado.

The Chairman. How old are you?

Mr. Baca. Twenty-four years old.

The Chairman. Tell me something about your family in New Mexico, your father and mother.

Mr. Baca. My grandparents moved from Texas to New Mexico and into Colorado. My father owned a farm in New Mexico. He raised sheep and cattle there, and done some farming. But failure of crops forced him to mortgage the livestock and the farm, and in 1922 the bank foreclosed on him and he had to sell out.

The Chairman. What size family do you have?

Mr. Baca. My father's family?

The Chairman. How many brothers and sisters?

Mr. Baca. I have three sisters and three brothers.

The Chairman. What size family do you have, Mrs. Baca?

Mrs. Baca. There were 10 children.

The Chairman. Ten children. Now, are you directly related to the Baca family of New Mexico?

Mr. Baca. Yes, sir.

The Chairman. Is there a Spanish settlement there, around about that place where you lived?

Mr. Baca. Yes; my father talks about the settlement there.

The Chairman. Well, are most of them American citizens?

Mr. Baca. Yes.

The Chairman. Did your father finally become a tenant farmer?

Mr. Baca. Yes; in 1923 the Great Western Sugar Co. had an agent in New Mexico, and they spread the word that conditions were better here, and that money could be made in Colorado, and work wasn't so hard, so finally father gave up the farm and we moved into Longmont, Colo., in 1923.

The Chairman. You mean he gave up the farm in New Mexico?

Mr. Baca. Yes; he lost it. By that time he was pretty well in debt, and the bank foreclosed on him.

The Chairman. He is renting a farm, isn't he, in Colorado?

Mr. Baca. No; not in 1923. He worked beets by contract from 1923 to 1926, through 1926.

The Chairman. He did finally rent a farm, didn't he?

Mr. Baca. He worked on a 50-percent basis, in 1926.

The Chairman. What did the landlord, the owner, provide?

Mr. Baca. He provided the irrigation water, the land, and the horses, half the feed, and the machinery, but we had to rebuild that, or repair it, when it was worn out.

The Chairman. You furnished the labor, didn't you?

Mr. Baca. Yes; all the labor, and half the seed.

The Chairman. What finally happened to this farm upon which you were tenants?

Mr. Baca. Well, we farmed the land 2 years, and the landlord tried to gyp us, and we moved to another farm, where we farmed for 10 years, from 1929 until 1938. In 1938, in that fall, a family—a very needy family from Kansas—came there and talked with our landlord, I guess; they must have, and our landlord made us a proposition for us to farm on a 30-percent basis, which we didn't see how we could do, because farming on a 50-percent basis we could barely make it, and that was 20 percent less, so he told us he had a family which would farm it on that agreement, and we had to move out.

The Chairman. Well, you finally lost your lease, did you, on that farm?

Mr. Baca. Yes.

The Chairman. And then you moved where, into the outskirts of La Salle?

Mr. Baca. Yes; we moved into La Salle.

The Chairman. And you took a contract, you and your older brother, to tend beets for different farmers?

Mr. Baca. Yes; my father and I and my brother.

The Chairman. You drove 6 miles to work each day, didn't you?

Mr. Baca. Yes.

The Chairman. And neither of the farmers for whom you worked—what did they do about living quarters? Did they provide you with them?

Mr. Baca. No. One farmer didn't have enough room on his place; one of them had a beet labor shack. One of the farmers had three vacant rooms where he lived, but he didn't like to have beet labor living on the same place, I guess, in the same house.

The Chairman. Where did you live, then?

Mr. Baca. What?

The Chairman. Where did you live, then?

Mr. Baca. Oh, we lived in town.

The Chairman. How much did you earn there?

Mr. Baca. Well, we done the thinning, which was $8 an acre, and the hoeing for 9 acres only; that was about $175.

The Chairman. For the summer?

Mr. Baca. Yes.

The Chairman. How many months?

Mr. Baca. Well, we worked—I don't remember exactly how many days in thinning, and then in hoeing we worked about a week.

The Chairman. How many were working, who made the $175, you and your brother?

Mr. Baca. Yes, my father and my little brother and I.

The Chairman. Three of you?

Mr. Baca. Yes.

The Chairman. How much did you all earn during 1939?

Mr. Baca. Well, in 1939, I worked by myself, or I took a contract; my folks didn't help me. My brother-in-law helped me. That was in 1939, you say?

The Chairman. Yes.

Mr. Baca. Well, we made $175 in 1939; I thought you were talking about this year.

The Chairman. How much education have you had?

Mr. Baca. I went through the eleventh grade.

The Chairman. And you, Mrs. Baca?

Mrs. Baca. Through the tenth.

The Chairman. Well, have you had very much work in the sugar beets?

Mr. Baca. Well, I have worked ever since 1926. I was 12 years old then.

The Chairman. How much do you get per day, or do you figure it by the day? How much do you earn working beets?

Mr. Baca. Oh, I would say about $3 or $4 a day.

The Chairman. That is, the two of you, $3 or $4 each?

Mr. Baca. $3 or $4 each; of course, from sunup to sundown; that is 14 hours a day or more.

The Chairman. Anyway, your family didn't earn very much money and didn't have a very good condition. Did it have any effect on the health of your family?

Mr. Baca. Yes, quite a bit. One of my sisters died from tuberculosis, and my mother and my other sister were in a sanitarium, afflicted with the same disease, for about a year, and I will have to leave about next week or in 2 weeks.

The Chairman. You are speaking about yourself?

Mr. Baca. Yes.

The Chairman. Why?

Mr. Baca. On account of tuberculosis.

The Chairman. You don't think you are affected with it now, do you?

Mr. Baca. Yes. I was in the health clinic at Greeley, Colo., Saturday, and I had a job picking spuds, and they advised me that if I wanted to expect to live long, I should quit all hard work.

The Chairman. How is your weight?

Mr. Baca. I weighed 138 last year, or about the middle of 1938, I weighed around 138. I weigh 125 now.

The Chairman. Now, as a matter of fact, you are awaiting the approval of the county commissioners to enter a sanitarium now, isn't that right?

Mr. Baca. Yes.

The Chairman. Do you think that the health of your family is due more or less to poor living conditions that you were living in?

Mr. Baca. I do. On the place where we lived, where we farmed 10 years, the landlord didn't put a drop of paint on that or do anything to fix the house in 10 years.

The Chairman. Yes.

Mr. Baca. There were three rooms that needed to be shingled, and whenever it rained all the water went in the house, and we had to sleep on the damp floor all the time, and I guess that is one of the main troubles.

The Chairman. You had beds, didn't you?

Mr. Baca. Yes, we did, but the floor was damp all the time, whenever it rained.

The Chairman. Did you ever call the landlord's attention to those conditions?

Mr. Baca. Yes.

The Chairman. What did he say about them?

Mr. Baca. He said he didn't see anything wrong with the house, that the house had been that way all the time.

The Chairman. Well, how many were living there?

Mr. Baca. There were nine of us.

The Chairman. Nine—and how many rooms?

Mr. Baca. Four rooms.

The Chairman. There were four rooms; were they large rooms?

Mr. Baca. No; they weren't. Two of them were fair-sized rooms, but the others were small.

The Chairman. Was there any toilet or bath in the house?

Mr. Baca. No.

The Chairman. Nine; and you were living there; how many boys and girls were there?

Mr. Baca. There were three girls, myself, and three brothers; my father, and my mother.

The Chairman. This committee has heard considerable evidence at earlier hearings, as well as this one, concerning the fair and reasonable wage set by the Secretary of Agriculture. From your observation, would you say the average beet family, in the regions you have seen, make enough to support themselves in a reasonable manner to maintain their health?

Mr. Baca. No; I don't think so, but I would say that they don't, judging from the fact that most of the beet families have to live on relief and W. P. A. through the winter months; that is sufficient reason to believe that beet laborers' families do not make sufficient money to live properly.

The Chairman. Have either of you ever been on relief?

Mr. Baca. No; my father is on W. P. A. now.

The Chairman. Oh, your father. What are you going to do when your husband goes to the sanitarium?

Mrs. Baca. I don't know.

The Chairman. Have you tried to secure any employment?

Mrs. Baca. No; not lately I haven't.

The Chairman. Well, thank you very much for your testimony.

Mr. Curtis. At this point I wish to offer a statement by Mr. C. E. Hazard, labor relations representative, Farm Security Administration. It is entitled "North of 66."

(The statement referred to was identified and appears in the supplemental file of unprinted exhibits.)

TESTIMONY OF T. J. HOWARD, COUNTY ATTORNEY OF GREELEY COUNTY, NEBR.

The Chairman. Now, Mr. Howard, you will come up here, please.

Mr. Curtis. We have Mr. T. J. Howard, county attorney of Greeley County, who has submitted a statement in writing.

STATEMENT BY T. J. HOWARD, COUNTY ATTORNEY, GREELEY COUNTY, NEBR.

I desire to state to the committee that Greeley County is in a very serious condition for the reason that we have suffered 10 bank failures and 7 failed crops. In addition to this the loan companies have foreclosed and taken over, over 200 of our farms, forcing the owners to leave the county as there was nothing to stay for after the failures of the banks and crops.

What we are interested in most at this time is that we have about 700 children on farms with their parents who must have food before another crop can be raised. While we are very glad to concur in the improvements that are to be made in farming, we are here asking that our children be given a sufficient amount of assistance to feed and clothe them at this time and until crops are matured.

Mr. Howard, is there anything else you want to suggest? We have read your statement, and it is in our record.

Mr. Howard. I just want to say to you that Carl Stefan, Congressman, Third District, requested that I come here to see you men. He said there would be some men here from Congress, and he would like to have me come and see them, and the county commissioners requested that I come down here and tell this committee a few things that are worrying us that appear not to have been told up to the present time.

Now, the thing that we want to do in this farming area is to have you fix it so that our farmers can go on and maintain their families and support themselves, but we are affected up there this way: We have, to start with, 10 failed banks out of 11 in the region, and we have had 7 failed crops following upon that. We have insurance companies foreclosing 200 and better of our farmers, and turning the farmers out on the highway and not giving them a place to stay. When the farmers are foreclosed, they ought to be put back on the farm, and they are not put back on. I happen to know about two to three hundred of them. About 300 of our farmers have gone away because of this depression and these conditions. That being true, we have got about 300 farmers left with no money. We have no money. We are bankrupt. We have no crops. And we have 700 children, about, that need to be clothed and fed, until we raise another crop, and that is the question that is worrying our commissioners. They say the State of Nebraska is not going to do it, and unless Congress can do something to take care of these farmers and their children, they will have to become wanderers on the highway.

Mr. Curtis. The point you want to stress in addition to this statement is that you need immediate assistance?

Mr. Howard. Immediate assistance for 300 farmers.

Mr. Curtis. That report will go in, but we are glad you are here, because it should be emphasized and must be taken care of.

(The following letter was placed in the record at this point:)

Hastings, Nebr., *September 13, 1940.*

Interstate Migration Committee, Lincoln, Nebr.:

Your wire of the 11th inst. received: "Investigator Ryan seeing you subject interstate migration, suggestion Congressman Curtis." Mr. Ryan called at my office last evening and we had a very pleasant half hour going over this subject, and at the close, Mr. Ryan suggested that I write you the gist of our conversation.

From the fact of residing in this community for more than 35 years, and from business contacts with people in this area, I am fairly well acquainted with the conditions. In the two counties in which I am best acquainted, Clay and Adams Counties, and roughly speaking, out of 150 cases of farmers leaving the farms and of business people losing out on their business, I do not know of any case where these people have become migrants in the sense that they have left this area and taken to the highways, going from place to place and becoming a public charge. The 150 cases, conservatively estimated, that have come under my observation have moved to cities or towns and the families have been helped through Work Projects Administration or direct relief, while the younger members of the families, like the boys, have gone elsewhere and obtained work. This area through central and southern Nebraska has been very hard hit with the drought and the depression covering the last 7 years. The farmers have raised practically nothing, and as a result, the farms are being sold under foreclosure, and in many instances the owners have become tenants and in the larger number of cases, they have become dependents.

The Government local assistance office in Hastings which covers these two counties above mentioned has paid out in the last 3 years a considerable amount for assistance to transients, and a fair percentage of those transients to whom help has been given are and have been migrants. A part of these so-called migrants are professional in the sense that they were migrants long before the hard times came on. Some of them, of course, have become such through the depression. They are from other States east and west, and are traveling from place to place, picking up little jobs that they can obtain, or getting what relief they can from the assistance offices.

Through this section of Nebraska we have just about lost hope of raising crops from the natural rainfall, and as a consequence, attention is being given to pump irrigation through here and through irrigation north of us where water can be obtained. Pump irrigation has increased the last year, and where a year ago there were 10 farmers who had pumping plants in this area, there are now probably 100, and great interest is being taken. We look forward with great expectancy to this being a boon to the farmers. It will mean, of course, smaller farms and more diversified and intensive farming.

I recognize that the subject of your committee is a real problem, and I am deeply sympathetic with the aims of your committee in getting reliable data on the subject and making recommendations for its elimination.

Very truly yours,

L. B. Stiner.

(Thereupon a short recess was taken, at the conclusion of which the proceedings were resumed as follows:)

The Chairman. The committee will please come to order.

TESTIMONY OF W. F. KUMLIEN, PROFESSOR OF RURAL SOCIOLOGY, SOUTH DAKOTA STATE COLLEGE, BROOKINGS, S. DAK.

Mr. Parsons. Mr. Kumlien, have a seat and give your full name and address and title to the reporter.

Mr. Kumlien. W. F. Kumlien. I am professor of rural sociology, South Dakota State College, at Brookings, S. Dak.

Mr. Parsons. It is very nice of you come down here, Professor. I read your statement here that you have prepared for the record, and I have been very much interested in it.

STATEMENT BY W. F. KUMLIEN AND HOWARD M. SAUER

(Acknowledgement: This study was made possible by the State and Federal Work Projects Administration cooperating with the South Dakota Agricultural Experiment Station. The project is officially designated as Work Projects Administration project No. 465–74–3–235. The material contained in this

pamphlet was prepared for and presented by request before a special congressional committee investigating the interstate migration of destitute citizens. A special hearing for the Middle Western States was held before the above committee on September 16–17, 1940, in courtroom No. 2 at the State capitol, Lincoln, Nebr.)

I. LOSSES IN SOUTH DAKOTA'S POPULATION

Growth and decline of total population.—The settlement of South Dakota was a part of the great westward expansion that took place during the last half of the nineteenth century. The fertile lands of the eastern part of the State, the discovery of gold in the Black Hills, and the thousands of acres of land suitable for ranching played their part in attracting the homesteaders, miners, and ranchers.

From 1870 to 1930 South Dakota's population showed a consistent increase for each decade. In 1870 the total population was 11,776, and by 1930 it had grown to 692,849. Since 1930 population growth for the State has gone into reverse. The 1940 total (preliminary census release) was 641,134, showing a net loss of 51,715 people. The following table shows the amount of population for each decade, together with the amount and percent of increase or decrease over the previous decade.

TABLE 1.—*Increase or decrease in population for South Dakota, by decades*

Year	Population	Increase or decrease over previous decade		Year	Population	Increase or decrease over previous decade	
		Number	Percent			Number	Percent
1940	641,134	−51,715	−7.5	1900	401,570	52,970	15.2
1930	692,849	56,302	8.8	1890	348,600	250,332	254.7
1920	636,547	52,659	9.0	1880	98,268	86,492	734.4
1910	583,888	182,318	45.4	1870	11,776		

Source: U. S. Census.

Gains and losses by counties.—During the 60-year period, 1870–1930, there were certain counties that showed losses in population. From 1890 to 1900, 16 counties declined; 12 counties decreased in population the next decade; and since 1910 there has been a steady increase in the number of counties showing population decline. Climatic conditions have been an important factor in these population losses by counties. As the period of the nineties was relatively dry, it is not surprising to find that 16 counties had decreased in population from 1890 to 1900.

TABLE 2.—*Number of counties declining in population, by decades*

Year	*Number of counties*
1890–1900	16
1900–10	12
1910–20	13
1920–30	18
1930–40	61

Source: United States Census, and Goodrich and others, Migration and Economic Opportunity, page 214.

During the 10-year period 1930–40 only 8 counties of South Dakota showed an increase in population (Fig. 1). Four of these were in the extreme eastern and 4 in the extreme western part of the State. They were: Roberts, with 5 percent increase; Minnehaha, 13.1 percent; Yankton, 0.6 percent; Union, 1.6 percent; Shannon, 32.1 percent; Custer, 12.0 percent; Pennington, 18.2 percent; and Lawrence, 37.1 percent. The gain in Minnehaha County was largely due to the 7,284 population increase in the city of Sioux Falls. The Black Hills' gold mines were largely responsible for the increase in the 3 counties of Custer, Pennington, and Lawrence.

Sixty-one counties showed a loss in population ranging from 1.0 percent in Lake to 47.5 percent in Armstrong between 1930–40. Seventeen counties showed a decrease in population of 20 percent or more. These counties with the heavy losses in population are in the central part of the State and lie just east and west of the river. In these counties most of the people live on farms or ranches.

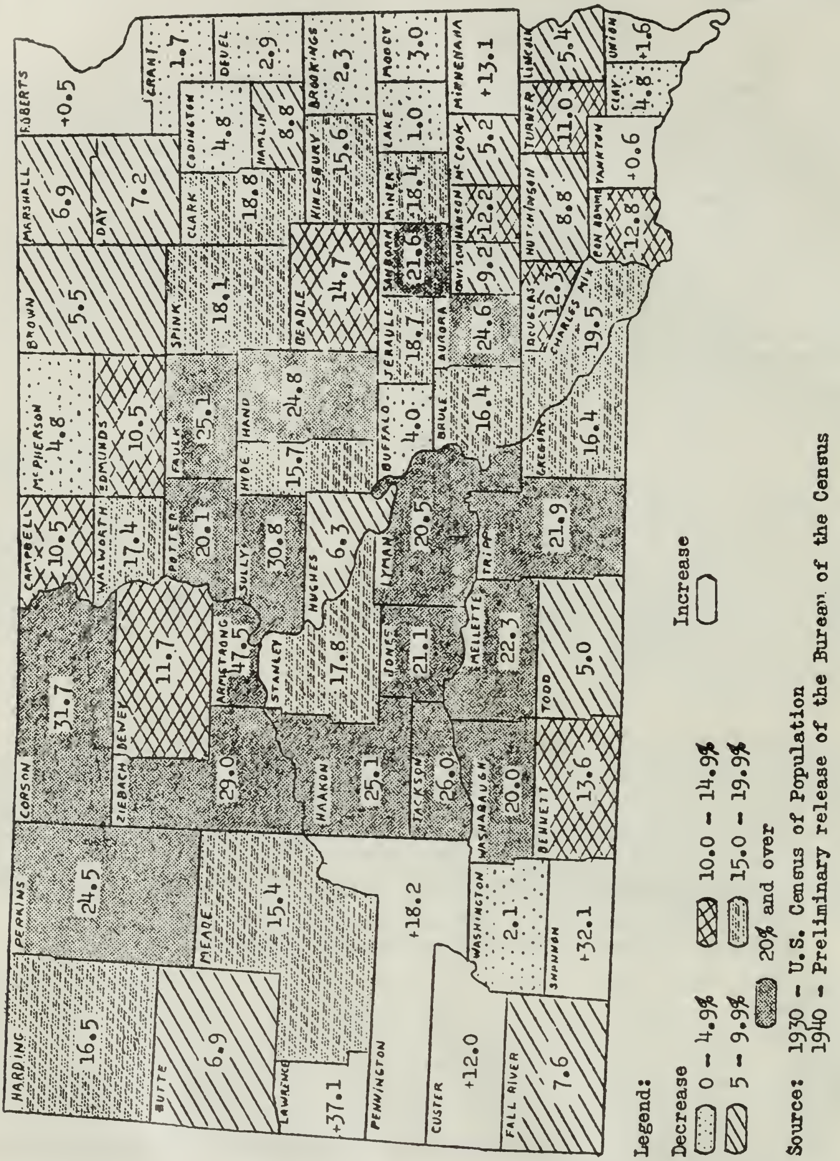

ROBERTS +0.5
GRANT 1.7
DEUEL 2.9
BROOKINGS 2.3
MOODY 3.0
MINNEHAHA +13.1
LINCOLN 5.4
UNION +1.6
CLAY 4.8
CODINGTON 4.8
HAMLIN 8.8
KINGSBURY 15.6
LAKE 1.0
McCOOK 5.2
TURNER 11.0
YANKTON +0.6
MARSHALL 6.9
DAY 7.2
CLARK 18.8
MINER 18.4
HANSON 12.2
HUTCHINSON 8.8
BON HOMME 12.8
BROWN 5.5
SPINK 18.1
BEADLE 14.7
SANBORN 21.6
DAVISON 9.2
DOUGLAS 12.3
CHARLES MIX 19.5
McPHERSON 4.8
EDMUNDS 10.5
FAULK 25.1
HAND 24.8
JERAULD 18.7
AURORA 24.6
BUFFALO 4.0
BRULE 16.4
GREGORY 16.4
HYDE 15.7
CAMPBELL 10.5
WALWORTH 17.4
POTTER 20.1
SULLY 30.8
HUGHES 6.3
LYMAN 20.5
TRIPP 21.9
CORSON 31.7
DEWEY 11.7
ARMSTRONG 47.5
STANLEY 17.8
JONES 21.1
MELLETTE 22.3
TODD 5.0
ZIEBACH 29.0
HAAKON 25.1
JACKSON 26.0
WASHABAUGH 20.0
BENNETT 13.6
PERKINS 24.5
MEADE 15.4
PENNINGTON +18.2
WASHINGTON 2.1
SHANNON +32.1
HARDING 16.5
BUTTE 6.9
LAWRENCE +37.1
CUSTER +12.0
FALL RIVER 7.6
Legend:
Decrease
0 - 4.9%
5 - 9.9%
10.0 - 14.9%
15.0 - 19.9%
20% and over
Increase
Source: 1930 - U.S. Census of Population
1940 - Preliminary release of the Bureau of the Census

FIGURE 1. Gains or losses in South Dakota's population by counties, 1930–40.

Estimated net migration, 1930–40.—The above data, however, do not give an accurate picture of migration. The estimated net migration from the State of South Dakota for the period 1930–40 is approximately 119,000,[1] a number which is equal to 18.6 percent of the 1940 population. From 1930–35 the estimated migration was 54,400.[2] The greater migration for the period 1935–40, 64,600, might be explained in part by the accumulated effects of the droughts of 1934 and 1936.

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[1] Net migration for the period 1930–40 was arrived at as follows: The natural increase of 67,303—number of births minus number of deaths—was added to the population of

The difficulties encountered in making estimates of net migration leave all figures subject to question, but the evidence indicates that a population mobility movement of major proportion has been in progress, but that the rate of outward migration is rapidly tapering off.

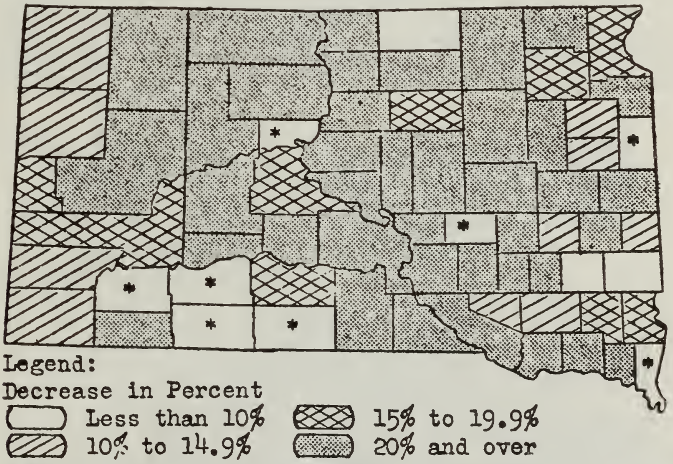
Estimates of farm population losses, 1930–40.—Of the total rural farm population in 1935, 12,950 lived in a nonfarm residence 5 years earlier. The estimated census figures show there has been a decline of 82,631 in the rural farm population for the 1940 census as compared to 1930.

TABLE 3.—*Farm population in 1930–40 (estimated)*

Year	Rural farm	Total
1930	389,431	692,849
1940	306,800	639,972

Source: Division of Farm Population and Rural Welfare, United States Department of Agriculture.

This is a figure equal to 26.8 percent of the 1940 rural farm population. Since 1937 the farm population losses have not been so great and the figures indicate that migration from the farms has been slowing down. The total loss of farm population was estimated at 16,100 in 1937, 3,800 in 1938, and only 1,100 in 1939.



Source: U.S. Weather Bureau, South Dakota Section

FIGURE 2. Departure from normal precipitation, 1931–35, compared to 50-year average.

II. REASONS FOR MIGRATING FROM SOUTH DAKOTA

Whenever times are hard and jobs disappear many people leave their homes in search of greater opportunities elsewhere. Important specific causes of migration in South Dakota are:

Natural causes, which would include drought, dust storms, insect pests, wind erosion of soil, crop failures, and low crop yields; *Economic causes* as changes

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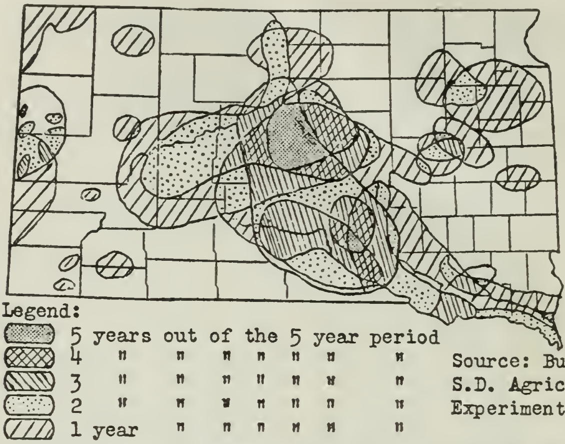
1930—692,849. The total figure of 760,152 would have been the population for 1940 had there been no migration. The preliminary release for 1940 from the Bureau of the Census shows a total population of 641,134, which is a difference of 119,018. Thus it appears that there must have been a net movement of 119,018 persons from the State

[2] The same method was used as for 1930–40. The State census population count for 1935 was used.

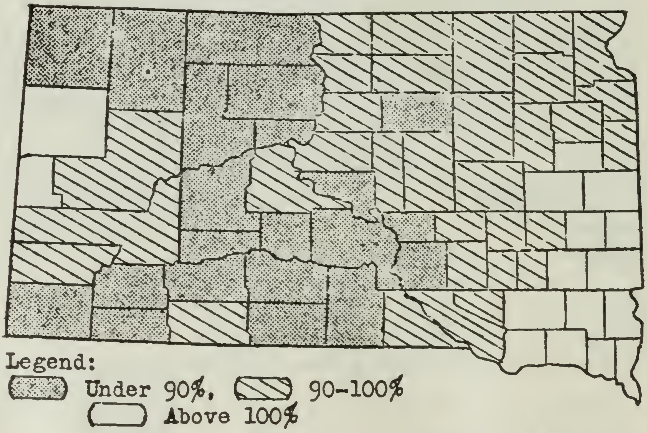
in production techniques, sudden changes in price levels, and real estate promotion resulting in bank failures and mortgage foreclosures; *Personal* and *Social causes* as health, population growth, development of transportation, and communication.



Source: Bul. 315
S.D. Agriculture
Experiment Station

FIGURE 3. Number of years during 1930–35 where certain areas have had heavy grasshopper infestations in South Dakota.

Because South Dakota is predominantly an agricultural State, with more than 50 percent of its population residing on farms, a crop failure is disastrous. In recent years the State has been struck by drought (Fig. 2), grasshopper devastation (Fig. 3), and dust storms. As a result some counties have had only a fraction of a crop for a number of years. During the 1930–36 period, 20 counties had an average of 54 to 59 percent of normal crop yield; 35 counties had only 51 to 54 percent of a normal crop; and 12 counties had less than 51 percent of a normal crop[3] (Fig. 4).



Source: Division of Livestock and Crop Estimates,
U.S.D.A.

FIGURE 4. Index of crop yields for South Dakota, 1916–27.

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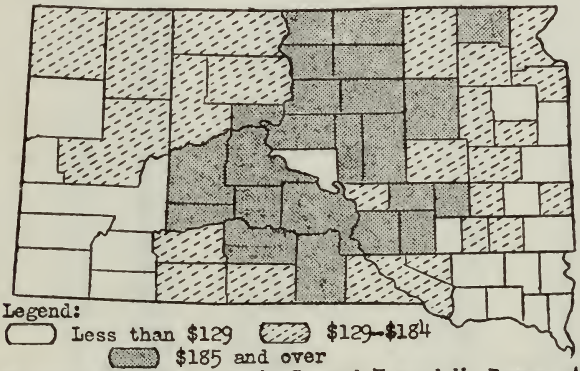
[3] Division of Crop and Livestock Estimates, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

In Tripp County, which is typical of many counties in South Dakota, a rural population mobility survey made in 1935 reveals that severe droughts coupled with severe grasshopper infestation resulted in almost complete crop failures in 1933 and 1934.[4] These crop failures resulted in the abandonment of 16 percent of the farms within the county. In one township, normally one of the best farming communities in the county, out of a total of 62 farms, 32 were abandoned as of January 1, 1935.

In Hand County there has been a 32.9 percent loss in the farm population for the 10-year period 1930–40.[5] In general, areas devoted to intensive farming suffered the greatest population loss whereas sections devoted to ranching and livestock production reported only a slight loss. These two counties are perhaps more or less typical of counties in which the greatest amount of migration occurred.

Transportation as a factor in migration.—The cost and difficulty of travel are becoming less prohibitive. Cheap second-hand cars, trailers and trucks, and good roads have made it possible for low-income groups to travel hundreds of miles to other States.



Source: Cronin, Francis D. and Howard W. Beers, Areas of Intense Drought Distress, 1930–1936, Works Progress Administration Research Bul. pp. 44 & 45.

FIGURE 5. Per capita Federal aid, by counties, in South Dakota, 1933–36.

Intensity of relief an index of economic distress.—When agriculture failed there was no other industry in the State which could absorb the unemployed. Consequently many families left their homes and moved to another State where they hoped conditions would be better. The 18 counties which showed a decrease in population of 20 percent or more between 1930 and 1940 were counties that have had many partial crops during the past 10 years. It is these same counties which have had an unusually high intensity of relief.[6]

Furthermore it has been found that the relief families had a tendency to change residence more often than nonrelief families.[7] Although relief families changed residence more often than nonrelief families, it is probable that if Federal and State relief, crop loans, etc., had not been available migration would have been much greater.

III. WHERE SOUTH DAKOTA MIGRANTS HAVE GONE

Depression migration compared to early migration.—The depression migration has differed from earlier migrations in that the depression transiency often lacked a definite destination. Formerly the migrations in the United

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[4] Hill, George W., Rural Migration and Farm Abandonment, p. 1.

[5] Land Use Planning in Hand County, South Dakota, Preliminary Report, 1940, pp. 144–145.

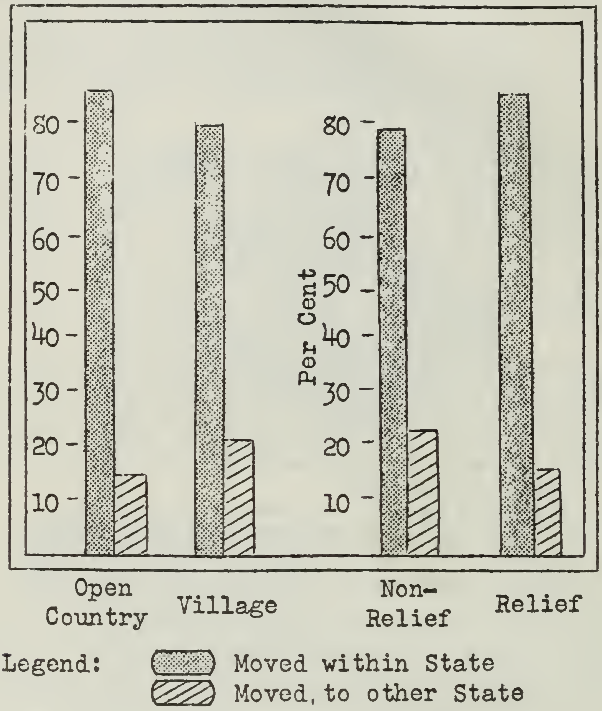
[6] Kumlien, W. F., A Graphic Summary of the Relief Situation in South Dakota, 1930–35, p. 53.

[7] Kumlien, W. F., McNamara, R. L., and Bankert, Zetta. Rural Population Mobility in South Dakota, p. 19.

States have been in two general directions: The movement of population to new land during the westward extension of the frontier; and the shift of population from the farm to the city. The participant in these movements as a rule had fairly definite objectives.[8]

Although the migrations of the past decade have lacked a definite destination certain characteristics should be noted. Contrary to popular opinion, long distance migrations represent the extreme rather than the typical case of family migration.

In a rural population mobility study in South Dakota, covering the period from 1928–35, it was found that of 3,389 migrating families, 83.7 percent moved only within the State, while 16.3 percent moved to other States.[9] (Fig. 6.)



Source: "Rural Population Mobility in South Dakota," Experiment Station Bulletin 315.

FIGURE 6. The distribution of 3,389 migrating families, classified by residence and relief status in six South Dakota families, from 1928 to 1935.

Migration to other States.—In this study we are especially interested in the interstate migrants. Of the estimated 119,000 persons leaving South Dakota in the past 10 years, it is difficult to say just where they have gone. There are, however, a number of studies that give us some indication. In a sample of 1,612 migrants from South Dakota farms in 1937, it was found that 237 went to Oregon, 219 to Washington, 215 to California, 213 to Minnesota, and 162 to Iowa.[10] The rest scattered—some going as far east as the State of New

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[8] Webb, John W., "The Transient Unemployed," Research Monograph, 1935, p. 79.

[9] Kumlien, W. F., McNamara, Robert L. and Bankert, Zetta E., op. cit., p. 9.

[10] Kumlien, W. F., and McNamara, Robert L., Farm Population Moving Out of South Dakota During 1937. Special Circular 1938.

This and the following two studies were made by the South Dakota Agricultural Experiment Station in cooperation with the Division of Farm Population and Rural Life of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture, and the Agricultural Conservation Committee.

York and some as far south as Texas. Although 40 percent moved to the Pacific Coast States, it must not be overlooked that neighboring States also received large numbers of persons moving from South Dakota. (See figure on cover page.)

A similar study made for 1938 shows that only 21 percent of the farm people included in the sample moved to the Pacific Coast States (California, Washington, and Oregon), while 21 percent went to Minnesota, 12 percent to Iowa, 10.5 percent to Nebraska, and 8.5 percent to North Dakota. Although the migration to neighboring States accounts for about one-half of the movement in and out of the State, it is less significant since much of this migration, even though a State boundary was crossed, represents a farm-to-farm movement within a community.[11]

In 1939, another farm population movement study was made.[12] Of the total number of persons included in the study, approximately 24 percent moved to the Pacific Coast States, while 48 percent went to neighboring States.

The study of farm abandonment in Tripp County, S. Dak., revealed that 144 farm families left the county between 1920–34, 59 percent of which moved to other States. Of these, about 33 percent moved into Nebraska, 8 percent went to Iowa, and about 5 percent went to California.[13]

In a study made in the State of Washington it was found that 83.6 percent of the incoming migrants came from the Great Plains States (North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Montana, Kansas, Colorado, Oklahoma, Wyoming, and Texas). South Dakota contributed 16.8 percent to the total.[14]

Many South Dakota people have gone to California. From July 1935 to June 1939 there were 3,361 persons in need of manual employment from South Dakota, entering California by motor vehicle. The greater number arrived in 1936 and 1937. There were 1,067 in 1936 and 1,164 in 1937.[15]

Another survey shows that in 1939 there were 2,146 families living in Washington, Oregon, and Idaho, who were living in South Dakota in 1930. More of the families enumerated in Oregon and Idaho arrived in 1936 than in any other year, while the peak was reached in Washington in 1937. There again the influence of the droughts of 1934 and 1936 is evident.[16] (Fig. 7.)

IV. TYPES OF PEOPLE WHO HAVE LEFT SOUTH DAKOTA

Youth predominates among migrants.—It is a well-established fact that there is a close relationship between youth and mobility. Among both men and women, young adults are the most mobile. In one Nation-wide study it was found that youth was a characteristic of the economic heads of migrant families—approximately one-half of the economic heads being under 35 years of age and more than three-fourths being under 45 years of age.[17] In 1932, for the United States as a whole 45 percent of all male family heads were 45 years of age or older. For the male heads of the migrant families only 22 percent were over 45 years of age.

In a study of rural population mobility in South Dakota it was found that the younger families move about more readily than do the families of older-age groups. This was particularly true of families with dependents under 16 years of age.[18] In this same study it was found that the age group 35–54 years was the most stable.

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[11] Kumlien, W. F., and McNamara, Robert L., Movement of Farm Population, South Dakota, 1938.

[12] Kumlien, W. F., and Vera Petheram, Movement of Farm Population, South Dakota, 1939.

[13] Hill, George W., Rural Migration and Farm Abandonment. The number of farms abandoned in Tripp County during the period 1930–34 was 273.

[14] Wakefield, Richard, and Landis, Paul H., The Drought Farmer Adjusts to the West, p. 7.

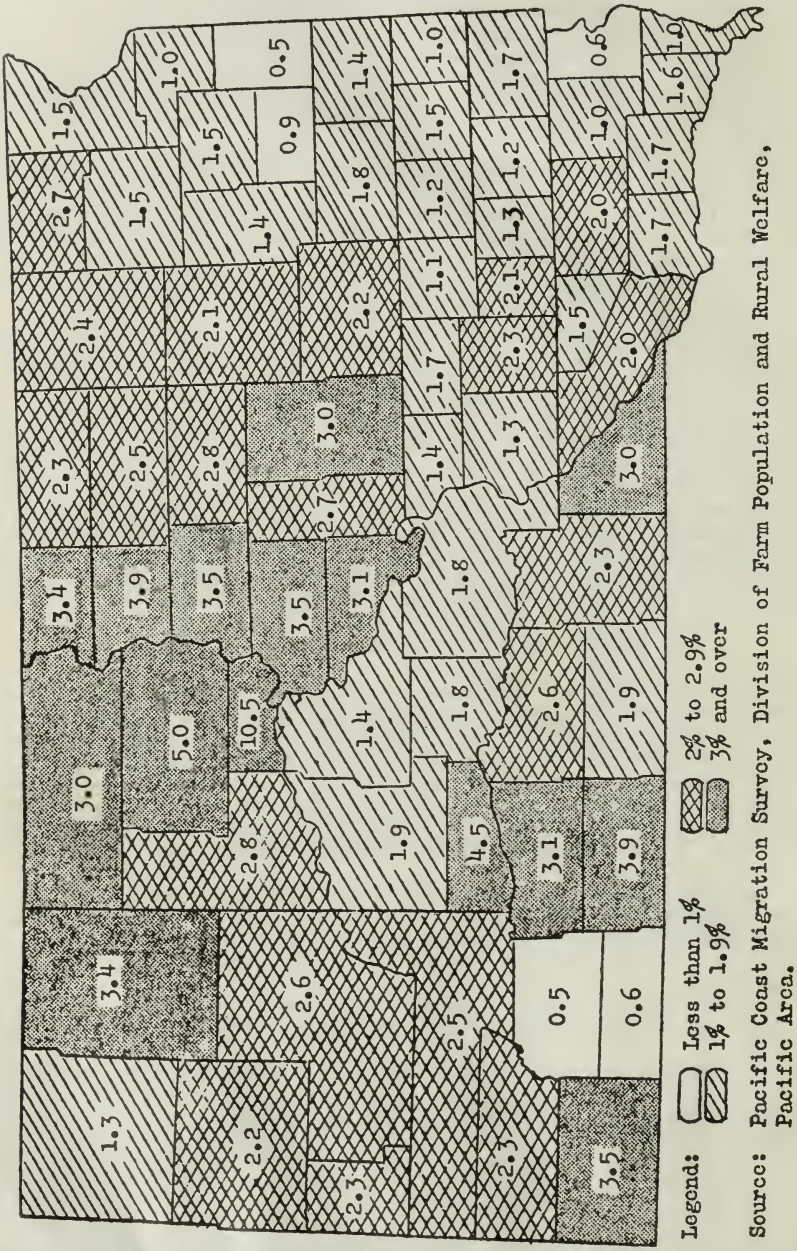
[15] McEntire, Davis, and Whetten, N. L., "Recent Migration to the Pacific Coast," Land Policy Review, vol. II, September–October 1939, p. 16.

[16] Troxell, Willard W., and O'Day, Paul W., "Migration to the Pacific Northwest, 1930–1938." Land Policy Review, vol. III, January–February 1940, pp. 35–36.

[17] Webb, John N., and Brown, Malcolm, "Migrant Families." Research Monograph, XVIII, pp. 97–98. In this study by Webb and Brown, a representative sample of 5,489 interstate migrant families were selected from the total number receiving care in transient bureaus during September 1935.

[18] Kumlien, W. F., McNamara, R. L., and Bankert, Zetta E., op. cit., p. 19.

Marital status.—A Nation-wide study of the transient relief population showed that among the heads of family groups between 84 to 88 percent were married, 7 percent were widowed or divorced, 6 percent were separated, and 1 to 2 percent were single.[19] The various studies lead one to conclude that among the migrant family heads there is a small proportion of divorced, separated, widowed, or single persons.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Legend: ▢ Less than 1% ▨ 1% to 1.9% ▩ 2% to 2.9% ▦ 3% and over

Source: Pacific Coast Migration Survey, Division of Farm Population and Rural Welfare, Pacific Area.

FIGURE 7. Percent loss of total South Dakota families migrating to Pacific Coast States only during 1930–1939, by counties (1930 base used).

Size of family.—Since the younger adults and younger families are more mobile than the older-age group, it is reasonable to expect to find the families of the migrants rather small. One study found the average size of transient families to be approximately three persons.[20] In a study of families migrating to the State of Washington the average size family was found to be 4.4. This is larger than the average size family in the State of Washington, but average size for families in the Great Plains.[21]

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[19] Webb, John M., "The Transient Unemployed," Research Monograph, III, Washington, 1935, p. 35.

A Portland, Oreg., school-questionnaire sample obtained between 1930–37, which included 491 persons from South Dakota, revealed that the average-size family from South Dakota was 5.4[22]

Education.—At present, no data are available to indicate whether or not the migrant families have more or less education than others of the same age group in the communities which they left. As a class the drought migrants have less education than the general population in South Dakota. In one study of drought migrants it was found that 33 percent of the family heads had not finished the eighth grade, and 70 percent never attended high school.[23] In 1935, for persons 18 years of age and over, the median length of time spent in school was above 9 years in almost every county in South Dakota.

Economic status.—In regard to the migration of the past decade, certain studies give us some idea of the economic characteristics of the people who have left the State. One South Dakota study found that some of the best farmers left their places and moved to other States, and that many who moved to other farms within the county frankly admitted that they would have moved out of the State had their resources been sufficient, or if they had been sure of securing relief in a new location.[24]

A picture of the economic condition of the rural migrant families from South Dakota and other drought States is given in a study of migrants to the State of Washington.[25] The report indicates that a majority of the drought migrants came West with a car or truck, usually of several years vintage, perhaps a trailer loaded with household goods, and whatever money they possessed. One-fourth of those interviewed placed the value on all property in their possession at the time of their arrival, including money, car, clothing, and personal property, at $100, or less. Sixty-five percent considered their assets to be worth less than $500. Only about 8 percent evaluated their assets at $2,000 or more. At the time this study was made about 18 percent of the new settlers owned property in the drought States from which they had moved. Although a large number had once owned farms or other real estate, much of the property left behind had no cash value. Some of the migrants had stopped paying taxes and would lose title by default, while others expected foreclosures of the mortgages carried on their real estate.[26]

In South Dakota, the professional, the semiskilled, and the unskilled groups are less stable than are farm owners, tenants, and proprietors. The professional group has a greater range of migration, and only about one-half of that group remained in one residence from 1928 to 1935. On the other hand, the farm-tenant group showed the least range of migration. Over half of those included in the study moved within the county of survey. The instability and greater range of migration of the professional group is due in part to the fact that many received their training in schools outside South Dakota.[27] There seems to be very little difference in the rate of mobility between persons living in villages and the people living on farms if they are compared by their corresponding age group.[23]

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[20] Coyle, D. C., Depression Pioneers, Social Problems, No. 1, p. 79.

[21] Wakefield, Richard, and Landis, Paul H., The Drought Farmer Adjusts to the West, p. 4.

[22] Stanberry, V. B., Migration Into Oregon, 1930–37, vol. II, Source and Characteristics of Migrants, Oregon State Planning Board, 1939, p. 144.

[23] Wakefield, Richard, and Landis, Paul H., op. cit., p. 16.

[24] Hill, George, Rural Farm Abandonment in Tripp County, S. Dak., p. 2.

[25] Wakefield, Richard and Landis, Paul H., op. cit., pp. 18–20.

[26] Ibid.

[27] Kumlien, W. F., McNamara, Robert L., and Bankert, Zetta E., op. cit. pp. 24–25.

[28] Ibid, p. 19.

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TESTIMONY OF W. F. KUMLIEN—Resumed

POPULATION LOSSES IN SOUTH DAKOTA

Mr. Parsons. Will you tell us in a general way what has happened to the population of South Dakota between 1870, when they began to settle, up to the present time, just briefly reviewing it and giving some of the reasons for these things happening.

Mr. Kumlien. South Dakota became a State in 1889, as you know, and was one of the last group of 10 or 11 territories to become States in the Union, and up until 1930 the total population of the State increased quite consistently. But in the last decade, between 1930 and 1940, we have lost about 7.6 percent, or a net loss of about 52,000 people.

Mr. PARSONS. Out of a total population of what in 1930?

Mr. KUMLIEN. 692,000.

Mr. PARSONS. What are the reasons you give for the loss of population? Is it one more or less specific thing, or is it a combination of two or three things and conditions?

Mr. KUMLIEN. No; I would say it is the combination of a number of things. Of course, one of them, or perhaps several of them, played a major part, as has been explained here by the numerous testimonials. I presume that drought has had as much to do with it as any other thing. From the drought has resulted a number of effects, of course, one of which has been migration.

DROUGHT PRINCIPAL CAUSE OF MIGRATION

Mr. PARSONS. You state that the drought has been the principal cause of the migration. Would you kindly enlarge upon that statement, showing us the nature of this migration, both within and without the State?

Mr. KUMLIEN. Yes, sir. If I may, I should like to show you a few charts here. I won't take much time. These charts, by the way, are not new evidence, but are taken from the statement which I have submitted to the committee. You have them all here in the regular statement, but I thought maybe you could see it a little more clearly, so I have brought these charts.

I would like to have you notice here, if you will, that this first map shows the departure from normal rainfall for the period from 1931 to 1935, as compared to the 50-year average. Next, if you will notice that the heaviest departure from normal is this group right in here, the central portion of the State.

Mr. PARSONS. You should have this map identified.

Mr. KUMLIEN. That is figure 1 in the statement. I should like to point out, in connection with the evidence presented before, that the hundredth meridian would come down just through that portion of the State. As a result of that, there are about 20 inches of normal rainfall in the eastern portion of the State. This other portion has less than 20, certain areas going as low as 10 or 12 or 15. It makes it clearly arid land.

You will find that this region in here [indicating] is what we call the tall-grass land, and this region in here, the short-grass region, and that is very noticeable all the way through. In other words, the rainfall always has been a vital factor here. Since that land has been broken up, we find exactly the same thing as regards the type of farming areas in the State. This section right in here becomes what is known as the intensive farming area. Then we have a second section in here——

The CHAIRMAN. Professor, when you say "in here," you see, the record won't show what that means. Identify it, if you will please.

Mr. KUMLIEN. In this Black Hills region we find that we have practically as good a region. The rainfall is about the same, but in the central part of South Dakota, we have, as you would naturally expect, a much more marginal and ranching type of farming. My point in trying to show this is to acquaint you with the fact that a departure from normal in this section will cause much greater distress.

Growing out of this, we have another difficulty. This map, figure 3, shows the grasshopper infestation which follows more intensively in a drought area. And you notice from our report that the black are those areas where they have had 5 years straight of grasshopper infestation. Those in the second line, the double cross, is where they have had 4 years; the next, where they have 3 out of 5, and 2 out of 5, and 1. The point I am getting at is, the worst drought section has had the most infestation, which has followed the drought.

Mr. Parsons. Have the people left the State principally from that region?

Mr. Kumlien. Yes. Now, figure 4, also that section there (indicating), shows the index of crop yields, and its distribution over the State. In other words, this portion of the State which we notice had the best rainfall, is, on an index yield of 100, much better as regards crop yield normally than is this other section.

Mr. Parsons. In the western section?

Mr. Kumlien. In the western section, and the Black Hills is also quite good, again following this same section here, but here, the index is below 90. Even normally, on a 10-year space of time, this section has a poor yield.

The Chairman. Please, when you say "here" and when you say "this," you see you can't transfer that picture to the record.

Mr. Kumlien. The central portion again has a more marginal yield.

Mr. Parsons. Then, the only territory in the Dakotas there that is to be counted on for anything like normal production is the southeastern section, and the northwestern section of the Black Hills; the rest of it is subnormal more than it is normal?

Mr. Kumlien. Yes; more frequently. Occasionally, you understand, we have good yields in this section. But the more marginal the area is, if you have any departure from normal in rainfall, the more acute is your crop failure. Now, a fourth map, which you understand is in the field of effect, rather than cause. I want to point out that there. Federal per capita aid per county, over the same period, from 1933 to 1936, which was identically the same period——

Mr. Parsons (interposing). That is greater in the central portion than either the extreme east or west?

Mr. Kumlien. Much greater. In other words, the average per capita Federal relief was $185, and in the central portion, I mean; whereas in this other area it was less than $129. In other words, you will find exactly the same pattern in your more marginal section of the State. Now, our point in presenting this line of evidence is to show that you have a regular sequence of cause and effect.

Mr. Parsons. Tell us, if you can, Professor, the type of folks that migrate. Are they of the poorest and lowest educated, or are there a lot of the "upper" people, who have been educated there, who are leaving and going to other regions?

Mr. **Kumlien**. We have to get our evidence for that sort of thing from the receiving end. That is, I mean to say it is the States that receive these migrants, like California, that have made the studies, where they find out the characteristics of those who have come from the Dakotas and other States.

Mr. **Parsons**. You haven't been able to study that situation in the Dakotas, to ascertain just what type and kind left?

Mr. **Kumlien**. We have indirectly. We find that the average farmer and his family, or the average situation in South Dakota, have had a tenth-grade education, and as far as we can ascertain, the average migrant has about 2 years less than that.

Mr. **Parsons**. How many years have you been studying the sociological problems in those areas?

Mr. **Kumlien**. Fifteen years.

Mr. **Parsons**. You have been professor in the university there?

Mr. **Kumlien**. I have been in South Dakota for 23 years, 3 years first as a county agent, and 1 year as a State leader of county agents, 4 years as director of extension, and 15 years as head of the sociology department.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Mr. **Parsons**. In all of the years of study you have given to this, then, the committee would like to have the results of your findings. Do you have any suggestion you care to make to the committee to help solve this serious economic problem?

Mr. **Kumlien**. I think from the testimony we have heard here the last few days, it is evident that the thing resolves itself into two very definite situations. You have the short term or the immediate side of it, in which you have to give some help to the victims of this whole migratory situation. Now, that, of course, is a separate problem. But I presume the thing that the committee is most interested in is the long-term aspects of it, something that will help the situation in the future and avoid repetition of this sort of thing.

Mr. **Parsons**. We know we can't cure this thing overnight, but what we want is a long-range, planned program.

PUBLICATION OF 1940 CENSUS FIGURES

Mr. **Kumlien**. Yes; I quite agree with the idea which has been expressed here several times, that this arises from many causes, and the cure will probably have to come from many sources. But first of all I would like to make this recommendation. You have in Washington the best source of information, which is in the census records, and I think it would be very valuable for this whole situation if you could put out an analysis of the 1940 census schedules particularly pertaining to migration. You have that not only for 1940, but you have it for the decades going back as far as 1790.

Mr. **Parsons**. Yes; and there may be a lot of these migrants who will never have their census taken.

Mr. **Kumlien**. That is true; but you could get a very excellent, balanced picture if you could have an analysis of the schedule right there.

Mr. Parsons. It will take some 18 to 20 months to get that. Probably it could be gotten before the close of the next Congress, the Seventy-seventh.

Mr. Kumlien. Wouldn't it be possible to have a special analysis made, just of this particular question, so as to get a well-balanced picture of the thing, not only for two or three States, but the Nation as a whole, both the States of origin and destination. I think it would be a revelation, and it would confirm the evidence given, either confirm or reject it.

Mr. Parsons. When our hearings opened in New York, about the last of July, one of the professors of the American University in Washington, D. C., was a witness, who made an analysis of census figures. He is a professor in population studies in the American University, and he, at that time, agreed to extend those in line with the 1940 census returns, as fast as possible.

BETTER COORDINATION OF EFFORTS OF FEDERAL AND STATE AGENCIES

Mr. Kumlien. I see. I think that would be one thing. Secondly, I should like to see some attempt made by this committee to bring about a better coordination of the efforts of the various Federal and State agencies which work on this whole question of migrants and rehabilitation, and so forth.

Mr. Parsons. We are making some progress on that, with some better cooperation in the last 2 years, but still there is further progress to be made in that direction.

Mr. Kumlien. I am convinced that we have enough resources. It isn't so difficult but what it could be solved, if you had the complete coordination of the various agencies, both the research and action agencies, and the extension agencies from the land-grant colleges. I think it would be very helpful in this situation, and would not cost much; it is largely an administrative matter, but I feel that it could be done.

I feel that the program that has been carried on in the last 7 years has been constructive, and I agree that very definite progress is being made. There is one thing that strikes me in connection with these efforts. Very frequently we approach this as though the existing conditions are going to continue indefinitely. As a matter of fact, there is one thing that has been overlooked, and that is, the rate of population growth is rapidly declining, and that this same problem which exists today may not exist 5 or 10 years from now; I mean, such a problem in population.

Even the rural birth rate is rapidly declining, and I am inclined to think, while it may take a little time, there may come about a better solution there than we realize. I am not suggesting that we do nothing, but I want to point out that the picture is changing very rapidly. I am inclined to think that in South Dakota it isn't a hopeless proposition. Frankly, if I may express this opinion, I think we have to keep the population down in South Dakota; we have too many people in South Dakota. I think we reached our normal saturation point in 1930, and probably now we have somewhere near the number we can take care of satisfactorily.

Mr. PARSONS. Are the conditions worse in South Dakota than in North Dakota?

Mr. KUMLIEN. I am not entirely familiar with the North Dakota situation, but I would say that they are.

Mr. PARSONS. Worse in South Dakota than in North Dakota?

Mr. KUMLIEN. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. They get more snow in North Dakota. Perhaps it helps in the moisture line.

Do you have any other suggestions?

DIFFUSION OF FARMING INFORMATION

Mr. KUMLIEN. Yes; there is one other suggestion, which isn't a suggestion for remedy. I think that those of us who work on this—and I was very much impressed with this testimony by the Union Central Life this morning—most of us who work with this problem forget that the people who came in and settled many of these States, that is, around 1889, were nearly all Easterners, who came into this region from the East with an eastern pattern of farming and an eastern pattern of social organization and everything of the kind. Every year sees a better adjustment of them—their children and their children's children—and I am inclined to think there is another thing. We are very rapidly learning to cope with the situation, and I think everything possible should be done to diffuse the information we now have from the experiment stations and research agencies out to the people, and I am inclined to think that the point, reiterated over and over again, that we should give information out to all of these people on farms, migratory and otherwise, is very well taken. That is, I think we have overestimated the amount of information diffused, and I think we need badly for our employment agencies to pass out information. Frequently people have listened to the booster organizations within the State for their information, rather than getting good scientific information as to a realistic situation.

Mr. CURTIS. I think your suggestion is well taken, but there are certain areas that for the future good of all concerned are going to have to support fewer people?

Mr. KUMLIEN. Yes.

Mr. CURTIS. You would not carry that so far as to put an obstacle against the full development of resources we have, in the way of water, and so forth?

Mr. KUMLIEN. No; very truly.

The CHAIRMAN. I want to say to you, Professor, what we have heard from you is very interesting, and we have heard dozens and dozens of witnesses at New York, Chicago, Montgomery, and here, and though you have been a professor for many years, I want to pay you this compliment: You are the finest optimist witness we have had so far.

Mr. KUMLIEN. Thank you.

Mr. CURTIS. I have here a paper from Daniel Garber, which is submitted for the record. I had hoped Senator Garber could be here. He represents a territory in the State legislature, and he is quite familiar with the situation; he is one of the State Senators here.

The CHAIRMAN. Yes. Without objection it will be incorporated in the record.

(The letter from Mr. Garber follows:)

RED CLOUD, NEBR.,
September 13, 1940.

MR. A. KRAMER,
Chief Investigator, Congressional Investigating Committee,
Terminal Warehouse Building, Lincoln, Nebr.

DEAR SIR: In conformity with my conversation with Mr. Ryan of your staff here in Red Cloud last evening, I am herewith submitting to you a statement of facts as I recall them from memory concerning the economic conditions of Nebraska. During the last session of the Nebraska Legislature, the writer had occasion to dig into the records and secure figures concerning crops, taxes, relief, and Government expenditures. Herewith I am quoting the same from memory, as I do not have the time to refer to the records and get this statement in the mail.

The writer qualifies to offer this information or to make this statement by stating that his people were the first settlers in the Republican Valley in Nebraska in 1870, and also that he has resided on the same farm in Webster County continuously for 62 years.

During the 6 years from 1933 to 1938, inclusive, Nebraska had an average agricultural production of about $200,000,000 per year, or $1,200,000,000 for this 6-year period. For 10 or 12 years preceding this the average production had been about $400,000,000 per year.

During this 6-year period from 1933 to 1939 the total taxes, both State and Federal, collected in Nebraska were about $850,000,000 per year. Also during this period the Federal Government has poured into Nebraska in loans, grants, relief, and projects about $660,000,000. Now if the taxes were paid out of the production which they properly should be, these figures signify that practically $2 of Federal funds has been operating the economic system of Nebraska to $1 of crop funds during this depression.

The direct relief checks in Nebraska average about 100,000 per month. According to my information, each of these checks supports about 3 persons, or a total of 300,000 persons on direct relief. The 1930 census showed a population about 1,300,000 in Nebraska. A little figuring will here disclose that about 25 percent of the total population of Nebraska is living on direct relief.

On January 8, 1939, the Federal land bank of Omaha held about 30 percent of all the farm mortgages in Nebraska. Of these, 46 percent were delinquent, which means to me that 46 percent of all the farm mortgages in Nebraska were delinquent.

In Webster County there are 1,400 bona fide farms or farm units. On January 1, 1939, 265 farmhouses were vacant and going to rack and ruin, and in addition to this the Farm Security Administration had 301 clients in Webster County occupying 301 farms that otherwise would be vacant, and probably 75 percent of these clients will never be able to repay a dime out of their farm profits as the result of their labor.

In Webster County the Federal land bank holds about 35 percent of the farm mortgages and 62 percent of these were delinquent on January 1, 1940. In addition to this, about 400 farms had alread been foreclosed or deeded over in distress since this depression started and about 50 were hanging in the courts. Many farmers have mortgaged their farms and lost them since this depression started in 1930.

For the 8 straight years from 1933 to 1940, inclusive, Webster County has been visited with practically total failures of crops because of drought and grasshoppers. In addition to this, crops have been short for a period of 10 or 15 years previously. In the south half of Webster County many farmers bought their horse feed all during the World War, owing to the drought conditions.

In Webster County land values have shrunk from a normal of $30 to $75 per acre in 1910 to $5 to $20 per acre in 1940. Farms sold under the hammer in settlement of estates or by owners desiring to move out, and also some private sales have been made at $5 to $15 per acre. In some cases these sales carried along $1,500 to $3,000 improvements. The value of town property has shrunk in proportion, and in some of the smaller towns value has disappeared from property entirely.

Webster County had a population of more than 10,000 in 1930 and is reported to have a population of 8,000 in 1940, or a loss of 20 percent. All these facts herein reported concerning Webster County will apply to the other two counties in this State senatorial district, Nuckolls and Franklin Counties, and would probably also apply to the immediately adjacent one-third of the State of Nebraska.

To my knowledge, some of the people who have moved from Webster County have gone to California, Oregon, Idaho, Missouri, Arkansas, and Iowa. But I have no data on numbers or percentages.

Now what is the answer to this most distressing situation? This section of Nebraska has a fertile, potentially productive soil and an excellent climate. The inhabitants are industrious, ambitious to be self-sustaining, religious, and friendly. These people do not want to continue on doles or relief. They earnestly and sincerely wish to each operate his own business individually, and not collectively, as previous to this depression and drought period. Practically the entire difficulty is lack of soil moisture. Nearly all the trees have died on the higher lands off the creek bottoms and river bottom during these 8 years of drought, as also most of the native grass pastures.

On the law of averages, for at least the past 3 years the farmers of this locality in Nebraska and also in Kansas have been planting their crops in the spring with odds of at least 25 to 1 against a crop, due to lack of subsoil moisture to sustain the crops through dry periods of the growing season. The subsoil of this section of the State appears to be dried out clear down to the water-bearing gravel which ranges from 50 to 200 feet. Already the stage is well set for another crop failure in 1941.

Purchases of farms by tenants with funds supplied by the Federal Government, Federal loans, grants, commodity distribution, relief checks and doles are no solution of the problem. The problem is almost purely moisture to grow the necessary crops to make this country inhabitable. All Government aid and relief measures are like rubbing salve on a cancer.

Daniel Garber,
Red Cloud, Nebr.

Mr. Curtis. I also wish to submit a statement from Mr. Henry Behrns, of Lincoln.

(The statement of Mr. Behrns follows:)

I have been a farmer and cattle feeder in Cuming County, Nebr., for many years. I have served in the legislature, State senate, and on the State board of control for 20 years, and have been vice president of the First National Bank of Beemer, Nebr., for 30 years.

As I understand it, the question is why so many people have left the State of Nebraska. In answer to that I will say that the drought of recent years had a great bearing on that but that has not been the only reason. Farm prices on farm products have not been remunerative of late years, notwithstanding that the Federal Government program to stabilize products has been in effect in this State. I have a newspaper clipping, dated September 13, 1940, which states that corn prospects are reported improving and corn prospects are materially improved as a result of the comeback by eastern Nebraska corn during August—says the Federal division of agricultural statistics. Prospective production is higher than indicated a month ago. Now I have recently been in northeastern Nebraska, also in the southeastern part of the State, and this report is exactly the reverse. It is unreliable. The corn in the eastern part of this State has deteriorated materially on account of dry weather and also on account of frost. These statements have repeatedly come other years of the same nature, which have been always a detriment to the farmer. If anyone doubts this statement, I would be willing to accompany any man through the eastern part of this State and thoroughly convince him that I am right that corn from late drought and frost has materially deteriorated, while in some parts of Nebraska corn prospects are 100 percent, and in many places where corn prospects were good they have suffered severely by drought and frost of late. These reports, as I see, have been coming out for some years.

A few years ago wheat prospects were very good in Nebraska. The agricultural department issued a statement that wheat perhaps would yield from 30 to 40 bushels per acre. I made the statement then that this statement would break the price of wheat at least 10 to 12 cents per bushel, which figures show that it did. On account of bad rust, lots of the wheat in this State was not harvested. When the corn prospects looked good a report of similar nature then came out and stated that we would have one of the largest corn crops in the State, and later on the hot winds and drought almost ruined the corn crop. But when the statement came out on the corn prospects, corn was broke 10 cents a bushel and this has been repeatedly going on.

Another reason why many farmers are leaving the farms is because they have not been able to meet their bills and especially the younger people on the farms have gone to the cities where the wages are higher and the hours are shorter. For instance, about a month ago, wheat on the board of trade dropped approximately 30 cents per bushel in less than 1 week. Mr. Wallace of the Agriculture Department then stated that he was going to peg the wheat prices so that wheat could not go lower. This wheat pegging was in effect approximately 2 or 3 weeks. Then this pegging of wheat was withdrawn, and the day that it was withdrawn wheat dropped 4 cents more and dropped almost 40 cents a bushel. While the farmers had to stand this drop of their wheat, farm machinery or any article that the farmers have to buy did not drop one cent. These farmers have been trading dollars for half-dollars until they are about all traded out. Farm buildings are not being repaired, nor are they being painted, and they are deteriorating very rapidly. I have been wondering who is going to rebuild them. For instance, a lumberman told me just the other evening, that the price of lumber has gone up $10 per thousand, but not a single thing that the farmer has to sell has gone up to offset this $10 per thousand.

Now there has been a great deal of talk of loaning the farmers more money. I have a statement here from Lancaster County. This is the county where Lincoln, our State capital, is situated. These figures give the mortgages against farm lands in Lancaster County by townships and how many mortgages and the amounts on each township in the county. The total makes the remarkable sum of $13,264,777. Now I don't believe that it would do these farmers much good to loan them more money so that their interest would be still increased. What the farmer needs most is good prices compared with prices of commodities that the farmers purchase, so that they may pay off some of their obligations to get out of the rut.

I had no prepared statement at this time, and this is only giving the facts as I see them. If I had taken some time, I could have made a much more comprehensive statement. There has been a great deal of legislation going on in regard to hours for laboring people in the cities, and salaries, etc., but the people that remain on the farms have been laboring long hours without any compensation. Many of them have lost their homes, and unless when they raise crops that they are compensated for their labor, you will find that in a few years there will be still less people on the farms in the Middle West. There are now many farms in Nebraska, Kansas, and the middle West that the people have deserted and the buildings are almost going to wreck.

TESTIMONY OF VAL KUSKA, OF OMAHA, NEBR., COLONIZATION AGENT, CHICAGO, BURLINGTON & QUINCY RAILROAD CO.

The CHAIRMAN. Mr. Val Kuska, you will come forward, please.

Mr. CURTIS. Mr. Kuska, as we have stated, the scheduled witnesses are not to be interrupted, but I called you here to secure permission for you to submit a written statement for the record, to be supplied at some later time. Our staff will instruct you where to send it, and knowing you to be a modest man, I want you in that written statement to set out who you are and your past experience and the observations that you have made over this territory. If there is anything in particular you want to say to the committee——

Mr. KUSKA (interposing). Well, I don't know that I do, if I can submit a written statement.

The CHAIRMAN. Thank you very much.

(The statement of Val Kuska was later submitted and appears below.)

STABILIZED AGRICULTURE THROUGH IRRIGATION FOR CONTROL OF FARMER MIGRATION

STATEMENT OF VAL KUSKA, COLONIZATION AGENT, CHICAGO, BURLINGTON & QUINCY RAILROAD CO.

As colonization agent for the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad since April 1, 1922, I have been in contact with people from all parts of the country seeking new locations on farms and in business. Prior to that, I had real estate and land-colonization experience in commercial firms, and was engaged at various times in irrigation development, farm management, and agricultural extension work. Before that, I had practical farm experience on the farm in south central Nebraska where I was born and reared.

So, for many years, I have been able to observe the movement of families from one region to another. Generally, their migration has been a step-by-step process because they did not want to go too far away. The first move from the Atlantic seaboard was into Ohio and Indiana, then to Illinois and Iowa, later into Nebraska, Colorado, and Wyoming, and finally on to the Pacific coast.

Always their purpose was to improve their condition, although the immediate causes of their moving were varied. Adventure beckoned some; the pioneer urge drove many from the security of established settlements; the search for health brought considerable numbers to the West; others followed trails blazed by friends and relatives.

In the thousands of acres of cheap, virgin land, opportunity for ownership and independence awaited the fellows who had grown to manhood and were ready to start farming for themselves but found land prices too high at home. Also attracted to the new country were scores of tenant families forced to vacate when the landlord's sons were ready to take over, as well as those displaced by the mechanization of agriculture which permitted large areas to be handled by one operator.

Since the depression, many families who had retired from active farming were forced, because of mounting tax loads in the cities where they lived and decreased returns from their land, to go back to the farms where they could maintain themselves at less expense. Consequently, more tenants were forced to seek locations elsewhere.

Droughts of recent years have brought hundreds of farm owners and tenants to the verge of bankruptcy, forcing them to move on to cheaper lands or to jobs: some found opportunities in irrigated areas; others are still awaiting development of regions such as the Columbia Basin and other projects under construction.

While the critical condition of agriculture in the Great Plains area was precipitated, no doubt, by recent droughts, it was nonetheless inevitable so long as soil and water resources are being wasted. As far back as 1889, both cause and cure were proclaimed by Maj. J. W. Powell, director of United States Geological Survey. Addressing the North Dakota constitutional convention that year, he said, "Years will come of abundance, and years will come of disaster, and between the two, people will be prosperous and unprosperous. The thing to do is to look the question squarely in the face and provide for this end for all years.

"You hug to yourselves the delusion that the climate is changing. The question is 4,000 years old. Nothing that man can do will change the climate. A long succession of years will give you the same amount of rainfall that any other succession of years of the same length will give you. The settlement of the country, the population, the planting, the cultivation of trees, the building of railroads, all these will have no influence upon your climate. You may as well not hope for any improvement in this direction.

"There is almost rainfall enough for your purpose, but one year and another, you need a little more than you get. It is flowing past you in the rivers, waters rolling by you which are quite ample to redeem your land, and you must save those waters. I say it from the standpoint of the history of all such lands * * * what you have to depend on is placing the water on the soil."

The situation was equally apparent to H. M. Wilson, who in the Thirteenth Annual Report of United States Geological Survey (1891–92) said: "Irrigation will in the near future be so thoroughly appreciated that it will be practiced in large portions of what is now considered the humid region. In Italy, France, and most of India the rainfall is ample for ordinary crops. Nevertheless, irrigation is practiced to increase the yield and offset the consequences of drought. The general impression that irrigation is necessary or useful only in dry countries is entirely erroneous. The water may be required only once in a few years but when wanted, if not forthcoming, its lack means the loss of many homes, and the destitution of thousands of families."

This forecast, however, has not been fulfilled to the extent he hoped for, and it is still necessary to submit proof of the need for, and the benefits to be derived from, irrigation farming.

Sixteen years ago, A. Lincoln Fellows, senior irrigation engineer in the United States Department of Agriculture, at Denver, made a study of the proposed tri-county irrigation project in central Nebraska, under authorization of the Secretary of Interior as provided for in a Senate joint resolution passed in 1922. His assignment was to determine (1) average monthly deficiency of rainfall during growing season; (2) water-holding capacity of the soil; (3) approximate amount of water needed to supplement rainfall; (4) approximate increase in crop production made possible by subsoil storage (irrigation).

It was also realized that many other irrigation enterprises might be undertaken in the Great Plains area in the future, and that it was a matter of grave concern to the people there that correct conclusions be reached in regard to the tri-county project.

Cooperating in the study were Professors Burr (then chairman of the agronomy department, now dean) and Russell, of the College of Agriculture at Lincoln, whose contributions were made part of the final report. Also assisting Mr. Fellows was Samuel Fortier, associate chief, Division of Agricultural Engineering, Bureau of Public Roads, who prepared the introduction and general conclusions for the final report.

In his introductory remarks, Mr. Fortier stated that when this task was assigned, considerable apprehension was felt at first but, as investigations progressed, it became more and more evident that returns from the majority of farms within the area investigated were much smaller than had been realized by those living outside this part of the State; that the need for supplemental irrigation was becoming more urgent with the advance of time, and that there was a reasonable certainty of doubling, if not quadrupling, the values of yields by wide use of adequate water supply.

In his report, Mr. Fellows said, "In the area investigated, crop yields, farm profits, and farm-land values are reasonably certain to decrease in future years if sole reliance be placed on the natural precipitation to replenish the soil moisture within the root zone of crops. There has been a gradual decrease of crops which are generally successful in the earlier years of crop raising in this region, but which have since ceased to be profitable, even with the same precipitation.

"It is believed that the decrease in crop production results mainly from two rather distinct causes: (1) Through decrease in the ground, during a long term of years, of the nitrogen, phosphoric acid, potash, and other elements in the soil required for crop production; (2) in the decrease in humus in the soil resulting in a gradual change in the soil structure which renders it less capable of crop production by generally decreasing its capacity for proper tilth conditions. Unless means are found of rotating grain crops with leguminous crops, the time when this region must go back to grazing as the sole profitable form of agriculture cannot long be postponed."

Mr. Fellows went on to say that in climate, productivity of soils, and desirability for farming and home building, the region ranks high. In short, so far as physical and cultural features are concerned, the district is, generally speaking, about all that could be desired from an agricultural standpoint, except in the one particular of dependable water supply.

Mr. Fellows also quotes W. W. Burr, College of Agriculture, on this subject (Bulletin 140): "The amount of water available to the crop is probably the most important factor in crop production in most of the State today. It is more important than any particular method of tillage. Water stored in the soil before seeding tends to insure the crop but it is not sufficient to insure a profitable yield. The yield is influenced not only by the amount of stored water, but by the amount and distribution of the reasonal rainfall, and by other climatic conditions. Moisture is the limiting factor of production under our conditions."

With sufficient water supply such as is generally available under irrigation, maintenance of fertility on a soil inherently productive is not difficult to accomplish. Then adequate systems of rotations to include growing of more legume crops and keeping of more livestock (with consequent production of more barnyard manure) can easily be put into effect. Instead of continuously decreasing yields, the land can be brought back to its virgin fertility.

It seems to be the consensus of farmers in the loess districts of the Great Plains region that, with a well-distributed annual rainfall of 36 inches, of which 24 inches occur in the growing season, practically all crops suited to the climatic conditions can be satisfactorily raised, with the exception possibly of alfalfa which may require somewhat more water to produce profitable crops throughout a term of years.

The Fellows study revealed that average annual precipitation in the Tri-County district was 24.8 inches, of which two-thirds occurred during the growing season, April to August inclusive, but the dependable amount of moisture was only 18 inches annually, two-thirds of that being summer rains. Also, that the minimum requirement for supplemental irrigation water was: For corn, 6 inches applied as July irrigation; for winter wheat and spring small grains, 8 inches applied as fall irrigation; for beets, potatoes, and garden crops, 12 inches applied probably as three summer irrigations; for alfalfa, 18 inches applied either as one fall or spring, and two summer irrigations.

According to Fellows' report, if 6 to 8 inches of water for every irrigable acre were made available to the crop, returns from the present system of agriculture would doubtless be considerably increased. One good watering at the critical period for corn would turn many a dismal failure into a profitable crop. A moderate amount of water available for alfalfa would make possible the establishment of good stands and the saving of those stands during critical periods.

However, if the present system of agriculture should change in the direction of a greater acreage of alfalfa, the amount of water required per irrigable acre will increase. Seasons will arise when the rainfall is sufficient and crops will not draw heavily on the water stored in the soil. This holdover should contribute to the lowering of the irrigation requirement for the succeeding season. Obviously, this will make available more water for the production of alfalfa.

It is difficult to estimate accurately the increased amount and value of production under irrigation, considering the change in prices, increased production of stock of various kinds, and the gradual change in the character of crops, such as is certain to ensue during and after transition from a dry land to an irrigated agriculture. Also, results obtained will depend in a great measure on the farmer himself, and upon the conditions affecting his individual farm and farm operations.

But Professors Frank Miller and H. C. Filley, department of rural economics at the University of Nebraska, attempted to make such an estimate in their bulletin 311, Economic Benefits of Irrigation from the Kingsley Reservoir (Tri-County project), issued October 1937. Their conservative forecasts, based on actual crop yields under varying moisture conditions, including Scotts Bluff County, Nebr., where approximately 45 percent of the cropped area is irrigated, are:

Crop	10-year average without irrigation	Average 4 years favorable rainfall	Scotts Bluff County 10-year average	Estimated average under irrigation	Estimated increase due to irrigation
Alfalfa (tons)	1.82	2.87	2.77	3.0	1.18
Barley (bushels)	20.84	29.59	44.22	45.0	24.16
Corn	17.67	29.68	27.91	40.0	22.33
Oats	22.90	33.17	41.99	45.0	22.10
Wheat	12.70	14.76	19.57	20.0	7.30
Potatoes	64.80	-----	169.85	170.0	105.20
Sugar beets (tons)	-----	-----	13.39	10.2	-----

An interesting comparison with these estimates is the report of William R. Martin on certain pump-irrigation systems in Nebraska (August 1936) which shows average per acre increases as follows:

	Increase
Truck gardening	200 percent.
Feed crops	150 percent.
Atlas sorgo	3 to 14 tons.
Alfalfa	1.8 to 4.5 tons.
Corn	16.5 to 46.5 bushels.
Wheat	15 to 34 bushels.
Barley	20 to 50 bushels.
Potatoes	36.5 to 221 bushels.
Sugar beets	5 to 11.5 tons.
Artichokes	250 to 1,500 bushels.

These reports show what is within the realm of possibility when certain quantities of water are provided to supplement natural precipitation and proper practices are adhered to. And while these investigations cover Adams, Gosper, Kearney, and Phelps Counties in central Nebraska, the region and basic conditions are fairly comparable to those of the Great Plains as a whole.

Crop production, especially in its ratio to the taxable wealth represented in farm properties, determines not only the standard of living maintained by the farmer and the extent of his purchasing power, but also ability to carry his share of governmental expense on the tax rolls.

To illustrate, crops in the tricounty region (Adams, Gosper, Kearney, and Phelps Counties) in 1910 were valued at $8,870,700 or 10.3 percent of the assessed value of farm lands and buildings, $86,085,355. In 1930, crops worth $8,968,536 were only 9.9 percent of the property valuation, $90,285,972 (supplement A).[1]

Nebraska as a whole made only a slightly better showing, the 1910 crop of $196,125,632 being 10.8 percent of the $1,813,346,935 property valuation, and the 1930 crop of $299,107,260 being 12 percent of the $2,495,203,071 property value (supplement B).[1]

In contrast, and showing the increase due to irrigation, Scotts Bluff County crops worth $8,865,868 in 1930 were 37.7 percent of the property valuation, $23,496,180—a considerable gain since preirrigation 1910 when $1,060,355 crops were only 8 percent of the assessed value of farm lands and buildings, $12,903,721 (supplement C).[1]

It is plain to see in the proportion of earnings to capital invested, the Scotts Bluff County farmer has nearly four times larger crop returns from which to take his profits, improve his property, and contribute to civic development, than does the tricounty farmer where irrigation was not practiced in 1930. Furthermore, the Scotts Bluff average undoubtedly would be much higher if the whole county instead of only 45 percent were irrigated.

Another pertinent comparison indicating stability of the community as a taxpaying unit is the trend in population. In 1910 the tricounty area had 45,390 residents. Growth of towns and villages accounted for the 5.5 percent increase to 47,917 by 1930, but the unofficial count for 1940 shows only 43,528 persons living in the region—a loss of 9 percent in the decade, and over 4 percent since 1910. From 5,581 farms reported in 1910, the number dropped to 5,006 in 1930, rose slightly to 5,060 in 1935, although farm population decreased from 20,728 in 1930 to 20,349 in 1935 (supplement A).[1]

In Nebraska the 15.6 percent increase in population, 1910 to 1930, was cut down to a net gain of only 10 percent by 1940, due to a loss of 64,522 persons since 1930. Analysis of the count shows most of that loss was sustained in rural areas where drought and successive crop failures have depleted resources and hopes. Farm population in 1935 was 8 percent below 1910 figure (supplement B).[1]

What has happened to our farmers? Has the controlled production policy been extended to include human beings? No; it is just the primal urge and necessity for improving their conditions that has caused many Nebraskan farmers to leave this semiarid region and locate in western irrigated areas which hold promise of assured crop production when the important factor of moisture supply can be controlled to some extent. Nearby projects of Federal or private construction in Wyoming and Colorado have drawn heavily on our farm population; even more distant irrigated lands in the Northwest have attracted some.

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[1] Supplements are held in committee files, not printed.

Scotts Bluff County, Nebr., however, is a notable exception to the State's trend in population. At least one-third of its 5,231 gain (16 percent) since 1930 was due to increased population on farms. In fact, Scotts Bluff County has experienced rapid, continuous growth since 1910, when the population was only 8,355. The increase during 30 years has amounted to 305 percent, although Nebraska as a whole has gained only 10 percent in the same period, and the tricounty area actually lost 4 percent of its population (supplement C).

The reason for this phenomenal development can be attributed to irrigation farming, which began in 1910, because Scotts Bluff County has no advantage in location, soil or climate over other counties in the State. Rather, it has some disadvantages, being at the extreme west end of the State and having only half the normal precipitation of the eastern counties.

Study of Scotts Bluff County and other irrigated regions outside Nebraska has convinced me that immediate benefits of irrigation in the Great Plains would be: (1) More dependable and greater returns from a stabilized crop production; (2) maintenance of foundation herds at a desirable level, efficient livestock production and finishing for market locally instead of in distant feed lots; (3) diversified cropping and introduction of new cash crops such as sugar beets and others not now grown in surplus quantities in the United States; (4) increase in population, taxable wealth, trade, industry; (5) strengthened credit and security, which always lessens the desire to change locations.

Discussing these benefits further, Montana Experiment Station studies in Yellowstone County show to what extent irrigation maintains crop production levels. In 1929 over 80 percent of failure occurred in dry land crops. Poor farming may be partly responsible but it is safe to assume that irrigation prevented crop failure for the county as a whole (supplement D–1).

Not only does irrigation insure greater stability in yields from year to year, but yields generally are much higher than on dry land of corresponding quality. Nineteen twenty-nine crops of corn and wheat in Yellowstone County averaged two and one-half times as much per acre on irrigated land as on dry land; barley, oats, and rye, over three times as much; hay and alfalfa doubled; potatoes, 68 percent over dry-land yield (supplement D–2).

While income is affected by both production and price, it is also true that price fluctuations are influenced in many ways by production stability. Forced selling of livestock or occasional large crops in marginal grain areas have a depressing influence upon prices directly as well as indirectly through their influence on city purchasing power.

A comparison of gross returns shows that in 1929 irrigated land in Yellowstone County returned 13 times as much per acre as did dry land. If the land now under irrigation were farmed as dry land, with the same average farm set-up and with the same returns per acre as obtained from dry land farms in 1929, total value of all crops for the county in 1929 would have been only $1,157,081 instead of $4,376,629, a loss of $3,219,547, or 75 percent of actual returns (supplement D–3).

Total value of all products sold from irrigated land in Yellowstone County in 1929 was over two and a half times as much as total value of products sold from dry land. Had this irrigated land been farmed as dry land and with the same proportion of products marketed, value of products sold would have been diminished by $3,716,692, or 64.4 percent (supplement D–3).

It is not meant to imply that dry-land farming is not important in Yellowstone County and in Montana. In the aggregate, returns from Montana's dry-land wheat alone have in some years far exceeded the total income from irrigated lands. However, irrigated agriculture is the more stable and dependable; it also furnishes a feed base for Montana's livestock which are on the range part of the year. Hence, the use of both dry and irrigated land is complementary and interdependent and both types are necessary in Montana's agricultural picture.

The same is true of the whole Great Plains area. With irrigation water made available wherever possible, dependable production, almost as much as increased yields, will build up reserves of hay and feed crops to help sustain adjacent dry-farm areas during unfavorable seasons that are bound to occur periodically in this semiarid region, and maintain a proper livestock balance on both irrigated and nonirrigated lands.

Normally, about 75 percent of the farm income in Nebraska comes from livestock, and fluctuating crop yields affect livestock production, sometimes with serious results when a bad year reduces feed supplies for the large herds built up in more favorable years. Furthermore, 90 percent of the State's agricultural land is used to raise products which can be marketed successfully only by feeding them to livestock.

Nebraska cattle population has varied from 10-percent increases to 20-percent losses in a single year and, of course, in recent years has fallen far short of the 1931–35 average of 3,479,000 head. Hogs have shown even greater fluctuations, so that farm income from livestock is decidedly variable (supplements B, E).

While the situation in irrigated Scotts Bluff County is somewhat different because livestock operations are mainly feeding instead of breeding, the steady increase in cattle from 14,417 in 1910 to 43,738 in 1935 indicates that a stable feed supply is available there (supplement C). The Huntley irrigation project in Montana is another example of sustained livestock numbers. It supports 8,965.5 animal units while, if dry, it would support a maximum of only 1,444.4 animal units, based on 18 acres per animal unit, the average capacity for first-grade grazing land.

In addition to assured hay and grain crops under irrigation farming, the livestock industry can be further stimulated through the byproducts of sugar beets and canning crops. Pathfinder irrigation district (partially in Scotts Bluff County) reports cattle feeding having developed from nothing at all to 4,000 and 5,000 head a year in that small area alone, and the number of sheep fattened has increased from 25,000 in 1911 to 109,365 in 1937 (supplement F). At Hardin, Mont., 10,000 lambs were fed annually during the first years of beet growing (1933–36); in 1938, 30,000 lambs and 6,000 cattle were fed as result of a new factory in operation there.

Perhaps the greatest benefit from irrigation development is the diversification of the farm program and introduction of new cash crops. Alfalfa will be the first crop to expand in acreage because of its importance as a soil builder, livestock feed, and cash income producer. Again records on the Pathfinder district show relationship of alfalfa to a successful irrigation program. From 8 percent of the cropped area in 1909 it rose to 74 percent in 1913, building up nitrogen content of the soil to realize the full benefits of irrigation. Naturally, acreage dropped as the fertility was increased, in order to make room for other intensive crops. By 1939 acreage was only 11 percent (supplement G).

Corn usually remains in the crop routine because of its importance as a feed and its comparatively low cost of production; it fits well into irrigation on the Pathfinder irrigation district where the acreage has ranged from 12 percent in 1928 to 25 percent in 1935 (supplement G).

Wheat acreage will likely decrease as it has in the North Platte Valley. In 1909, the first year of irrigation on the Pathfinder district, wheat occupied 14 percent of the cropped land but, as irrigation progressed, the proportion decreased until it is less than 1 percent now (supplement G).

Chief among small grains will be barley and oats, valuable nurse crops for alfalfa and sweet clover, as well as excellent livestock feed. On the Pathfinder district, acreage of oats is maintained at 4 to 7 percent for that purpose mainly.

Sugar beets, potatoes, beans, vegetables for canning, and seed crops are valuable cash-income producers on irrigated land (supplement G).

One of the first results of irrigation development should be an increase in population, as there is always a much greater population density in irrigated than in dry-land areas. The Montana study mentioned before shows that Ravalli and Lake Counties, having very little dry farming, average about 12 persons per square mile, while Fergus and Fallon Counties, with little or no irrigated land, have only two persons per square mile (supplement D–4). In Yellowstone County the average density per square mile is 15.3 for irrigated, against 2.74 for dry land; the number of families per township is 106 for irrigated, against 19 for dry-farmed land (supplement D–5). I have already mentioned the growth in Scotts Bluff County, Nebr., where population increased 305 percent since 1910 while Nebraska as a whole gained only 10 percent (supplements B, C).

Another effect would be noted in property values. According to Ralph L. Parshall, senior Federal irrigation engineer at Colorado Experiment Station, irrigation has increased the value of land in northern and northeastern Colorado more than $100 an acre since 1868, a total of over $60,000,000 added to tax rolls in that part of Colorado. Think what that means to the tax lists. Again citing Scotts Bluff County, Nebr., where 45 percent of the farm land is irrigated: Its farm lands and buildings valuation nearly doubled between 1910 and 1930 while the State assessment showed an increase of only 38 percent in the same period (supplements B, C).

Also, as the population increases and the agricultural areas are developed and improved, money is spent for maintenance of original investments and for improvements. Under average producing conditions, approximately 12 percent of inventory value of machinery is spent annually for repairs and replacements. Building expense (upkeep, repairs) amount to about 3 percent of inventory value. For example, in Yellowstone County, Mont., farmers on irrigated land control 23.4 percent of all land in farms and spend approximately $300,000 per year for maintenance and upkeep. In areas of uncertain income, repairs and replacements often cannot be made when needed or, if made, often are not paid for promptly.

Study made at Iowa State College shows the average family of five spends about $1,500 a year in their local community. In irrigated areas where population generally is dense and production stable, there is a steady flow of goods into and out of the community from the time construction and settlement begin. For instance, note these carloading records of the Burlington Railroad:

In 1910, 1,445 carloads of freight originating in 14 States were received at Scottsbluff, Nebr. By 1939 receipts had increased to 5,634 carloads, representing 37 originating States (supplement H).

An interesting fact about these shipments is that several hundred carloads were grain and grain products, classed as surplus crops throughout the country, and it is not unreasonable to assume that, without development resulting from irrigation and the sugar-beet industry in the North Platte Valley, the market for these communities would be lacking.

Of the 1,947 carloads of freight forwarded from Scottsbluff in 1939, over 50 percent consisted of sugar, byproducts of its manufacture, and livestock fed as an accompaniment to beet culture (supplement H). Commerce in territories not having the sustaining influence of irrigation has dropped considerably in the past decade, reflecting a diminished purchasing power as crop and livestock production has fluctuated and decreased.

Irrigation development also stimulates local trade: Groceries, dry goods, creameries, hotels, service stations, garages, professional services and so on, as well as commerce and industry of other States supplying the irrigated area. A Montana study shows 406 retail establishments in an irrigated area, of which 134 were supported directly by the agricultural population. Assuming there was no irrigation and that population density was that of the average dry-land area, only 65 retail establishments could be supported by the agricultural population there. On the Huntley project in Montana, there are 27 retail outlets, at least 5 of which are maintained by the sugar-beet contract labor alone, which spends $125,000 annually. Of this 22,000-acre area were dry farmed, only two stores could be supported. Adding in the other hired help necessary and the intertrade between business establishments, the figures would be even higher. The interrelationships of agriculture, trade, industry, and services are plainly evident from these data (supplement D–6).

Some industrial activities grow directly out of irigation developments, such as beet-sugar manufacture, seed warehouses, vegetable canning. Proceeds from these new industries are shared by processor, factory worker, farmer, extra farm labor, those who supply materials, equipment, and transportation, and last but by no means least, the Government through collection of taxes. Sugar beets, for instance, may gross $175 an acre to the factory district; $16 of it is spent for labor to operate the factory; the farmer averages about $80; $24 goes for contract labor, plus a bonus based on yield of beets; a few dollars are paid to extra help for cultivating, irrigating, harvesting, and delivering beets; the railroad receives about $35 which in turn buys coal, labor, etc. Nebraska and Wyoming profit at this rate from the 12 factories which handle nearly a million tons of beets (1934) because irrigation farming is possible on about 100,000 acres in those States.

Seed beans and peas, specialized crops under irrigation, have created another industry in communities where they are grown. Fifty thousand acres of beans were harvested in the Big Horn Basin of Wyoming in 1936, handled by warehouses at Basin, Lovell, Worland, and Powell. At Basin during season 1932–33, pay roll of the Big Horn Cooperative Marketing Association and two other seed companies was equivalent to a payment of $6.50 per week for every man, woman, and child in the town. The turkey industry also has flourished in irrigated areas and adds about a million dollars annually to farm incomes in Wyoming.

Question of decreased coal consumption as a result of irrigation and power development has actually been a factor in increasing shipments of coal to the check of coal receipts by the Burlington Railroad at Scottsbluff show that such development has actually been a factor in increasing shipments of coal to the region, as 1939 receipts were 582 carloads more than in 1900, despite the competition of power development at Guernsey and Lingle in connection with the North Platte Federal Reclamation project and natural gas. Nor does the 1939 figure include coal moving into Gering, as was the case in 1900 (supplement I).

Prices of irrigated land are much more stable, too, which tends to strengthen the owner's credit and security. I am firmly convinced that the underlying cause of agriculture's critical condition is the great drop in farm-land values, resulting in investment losses and shrinkage of collateral for inventory and loan purposes. Even in these years of depression, improved irrigated lands in the Pathfinder irrigation district have maintained their values at a fairly constant level, while lands without water rights have depreciated greatly. If farm production in the regions of erratic rainfall could be stabilized by irrigation and other water-conservation practices, it is reasonable to assume that a major cause for the current migration from farms would be eliminated.

These statistics for various regions and from different sources have been offered to show conclusively the many benefits to be derived from irrigation farming, not only in a single community but wherever supplemental water is available and utilized for that purpose. The record of irrigation farming is a challenge to the whole Great Plains area. Practice and experience have brought about marked improvement in irrigation systems; still more efficient methods are being evolved, and a great deal is being learned every year about the duty of water and its practical application to the soil. The results are exactly those desired by the Great Plains drought area committee to achieve a stabilized agriculture and a sound, prospering economy for the region as a whole.

Meanwhile, to provide immediate relief to a drought-stricken agriculture, the University of Nebraska, through its college of agriculture and extension service, has sponsored pasture-forage-livestock programs in Nebraska since 1935. Aims of the program are: (1) Maintain proper livestock-forage balance; (2) restore drought-injured grasslands; (3) return unproductive cropland to grass; (4) increase acreage of soil-building crops; (5) produce heavy yields of high-quality roughages; (6) utilize forage crops profitably; (7) build up feed reserves; (8) encourage livestock on rented farms. Cooperating in this work have been the Nebraska crop growers, livestock breeders and feeders, and dairymen's associations, the Omaha Chamber of Commerce, and other civic organizations, and the railroads.

As chairman of the chamber of commerce committee assisting in the pasture-forage-livestock program since its inception, I have watched with considerable satisfaction the growth and accomplishments of the movement in Nebraska. From an enrollment of 426 farmers in 52 counties in 1935, the program has attracted 1,826 cooperators in 89 counties in 1940. Approximately 4,000 persons attended county meetings and tours the first year; in 1939 over 60,000 persons came to pasture-forage-livestock and related meetings held in the State. The State finish-up at Omaha drew 392 persons in 1935 (197 of them farmers and county agents from 29 counties); last year 800 attended from 61 counties; in addition 1,200 persons from 43 counties had attended 4 district finish-up meetings.

The most tangible evidence of benefits from the pasture-forage-livestock program is shown in increased sorghum acreage in Nebraska. In 1933, a little over 300,000 acres of grain and forage sorghums were harvested; in 1935, under stimulus of the pasture-forage-livestock program, acreage rose to 762,000 acres; this year the acreage is well over 2,000,000 acres. The survival and feeding qualities of sorghums are fast becoming appreciated throughout the State, particularly in regions where other crops were complete failures due to drought.

But sorghums are only a temporary measure of relief in a region where a permanent and effective cure is possible if water and soil resources are fully utilized. The examples of successful irrigation development in Nebraska and neighboring States mentioned above were the bases of data assembled in support of water-development projects seeking Public Works Administration funds, several of which received grants. We are confident that evidence we submitted had some force in securing their favorable consideration.

There are many other projects that need to be built but, to facilitate their construction, the reclamation law must be liberalized to permit irrigation districts to issue revenue bonds for repayment of construction costs. Pump irrigation could be greatly expanded in the Great Plains region, too, if long-time amortized loans were available. The 3-year term under present Farm Security Administration set-up is too short for irrigation loans because maximum development under an irrigation routine requires from 3 to 7 years. Other phases of the agricultural problem could be solved if the experiment stations, the college of agriculture, and the extension service had greater funds to carry on more effectively the work in their respective fields of research, teaching, and dissemination of their findings.

In conclusion I would say that, if these three objectives could be attained: (1) Revised reclamation law, (2) long-term irrigation loans, (3) increased funds for experiment stations and land-grant colleges so they may be still better prepared for training of personnel and diffusion of research findings through them, we would go a long way toward solving the problem of migrant farmers.

TESTIMONY OF THEODORE NELSON, OF LINCOLN, NEBR.

Mr. PARSONS. Mr. Nelson, give your name and address to the reporter for the record, please.

Mr. NELSON. Theodore Nelson.

Mr. PARSONS. Theodore Roosevelt Nelson?

Mr. NELSON. That is right.

Mr. PARSONS. Named for the first Roosevelt. When were you born, Mr. Nelson?

Mr. NELSON. November 4, 1906.

Mr. PARSONS. Here in Nebraska?

Mr. NELSON. Yes, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. You have been living here all your life?

Mr. NELSON. With the exception of 6 years.

Mr. PARSONS. Where did you live then?

Mr. NELSON. California.

Mr. PARSONS. In California. Are you married?

Mr. NELSON. Yes, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. Have any children?

Mr. NELSON. One.

Mr. PARSONS. How old is the child?

Mr. NELSON. Three and a half.

Mr. PARSONS. How did you happen to come down to Lincoln?

Mr. NELSON. Nebraska is my home State, and I figured I would get employment here. The folks live down in Beatrice.

Mr. Parsons. Did you get a job here?

Mr. Nelson. No, sir; nothing steady; part-time work was all.

Mr. Parsons. What part-time work have you been doing?

Mr. Nelson. I have been working at Feadrick's Friday and Saturday.

Mr. Parsons. Did you come directly from California here?

Mr. Nelson. We stopped in Kansas.

Mr. Parsons. Did you get any job there?

Mr. Nelson. No.

Mr. Parsons. Did you seek employment there?

Mr. Nelson. I tried to get work there, but couldn't find it.

Mr. Parsons. Well, something was said about your being promised a job in Kansas; so you came from California through there; is that true?

Mr. Nelson. I was promised a restaurant job, but he took bankruptcy.

Mr. Parsons. The job was gone before you arrived?

Mr. Nelson. Yes.

Mr. Parsons. Then you and your family came to Lincoln?

Mr. Nelson. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. Does your wife have any occupation other than housewife?

Mr. Nelson. She does restaurant work now and then.

Mr. Parsons. She is experienced in restaurant work?

Mr. Nelson. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. What have you done most of your life?

Mr. Nelson. I have worked in grocery stores, in the meat department; I worked for Safeway's for 4 years.

Mr. Parsons. You are a meat cutter by trade?

Mr. Nelson. Yes, sir; restaurant work, too.

Mr. Parsons. Does your wife work, or has she tried to get employment?

Mr. Nelson. She has tried to get work as a waitress here, but hasn't been able to get anything. They don't pay wages enough for her to work.

Mr. Parsons. Has she been offered any employment here as a waitress?

Mr. Nelson. Yes; she was offered one job, but it only paid $5 a week, I think it was, and it don't hardly pay for her to work.

Mr. Parsons. And did she have to furnish her own uniform?

Mr. Nelson. Yes, sir.

Mr. Parsons. That is the reason she didn't accept the job?

Mr. Nelson. That is right.

Mr. Parsons. And how much work have you had since you came to Lincoln?

Mr. Nelson. I have had about 1 month's work, I guess, is all it is.

Mr. Parsons. How are you getting along? What are you living on?

Mr. NELSON. Well, we manage to get by some way. I worked out at the fair, the State fair out here, a week, and made pretty good.

Mr. PARSONS. Have you ever applied for relief in this county?

Mr. NELSON. We applied.

Mr. PARSONS. Have you been given any relief?

Mr. NELSON. Only grocery orders.

Mr. PARSONS. Stamp orders?

Mr. NELSON. Yes, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. That is the stamp plan?

Mr. NELSON. No; that was direct orders to take to the grocery store.

Mr. PARSONS. How much was that for?

Mr. NELSON. I think we had six or eight orders of $3.40 for the week.

Mr. PARSONS. Do you know whether or not the State of Nebraska has asked authorization to send you back to Pomona?

Mr. NELSON. Yes; they have.

Mr. PARSONS. They have, and what do they say?

Mr. NELSON. They don't seem to be able to establish our residence, the records or something; although they have our records, they don't seem to be able to find them or locate them or something.

Mr. PARSONS. So the Department of Public Welfare in Los Angeles doesn't consider that you are residents of California. You weren't there continuously for 3 years and are not qualified to be sent back there. If you hitchhike your way back or got back some other way, they still wouldn't give you any help?

Mr. NELSON. I imagine that is right.

Mr. PARSONS. How many years have you been traveling around seeking employment, here, there, and yonder?

Mr. NELSON. Just since April.

Mr. PARSONS. That is when you left California?

Mr. NELSON. Yes, sir. I stayed here steadily and worked most of the time, 6 years ago.

Mr. PARSONS. Here in Lincoln?

Mr. NELSON. Yes, sir.

Mr. PARSONS. How many years had you been in California?

Mr. NELSON. Six years.

Mr. PARSONS. Were you on relief when you lived in Pomona?

Mr. NELSON. Part of the time; most of the time I worked, had a job, restaurant work.

Mr. PARSONS. Well, what can you tell us about this exchange of correspondence between Nebraska and California about sending you back? Do you want to go back to California?

Mr. NELSON. Yes; I prefer to. I think I would get better wages than I can here.

Mr. PARSONS. You came down this way because you started to Kansas, went to Kansas, thought you had a job there?

Mr. NELSON. Yes.

Mr. PARSONS. You would have been better off to stay in California all the time, wouldn't you?

Mr. **Nelson**. Yes.

Mr. **Parsons**. Do you have an urge to travel, to go out and see America first?

Mr. **Nelson**. Not so much.

Mr. **Parsons**. You would rather be settled down?

Mr. **Nelson**. Right.

Mr. **Parsons**. Sometimes I think I'd like to see America first.

Mr. **Nelson**. I wouldn't mind it.

Mr. **Parsons**. Well, what are you planning to do now, at the present time?

Mr. **Nelson**. I don't know yet.

Mr. **Parsons**. If they send you back to California, of course you are going?

Mr. **Nelson**. Yes; if I get transportation.

Mr. **Parsons**. You have hopes of finally getting authorization to be returned?

Mr. **Nelson**. What?

Mr. **Parsons**. You have hopes of finally obtaining authorization to be returned to California?

Mr. **Nelson**. Yes, sir.

Mr. **Parsons**. Do you own a car?

Mr. **Nelson**. No, sir.

Mr. **Parsons**. How did you do all this traveling about?

Mr. **Nelson**. With a car, but I sold it.

Mr. **Parsons**. Oh, you sold the car?

Mr. **Nelson**. Yes, sir.

Mr. **Parsons**. That is all, Mr. Chairman.

The **Chairman**. Thank you very much.

Mr. **Parsons**. I offer for the record telegrams exchanged between the Lancaster County Relief Bureau and the Los Angeles Department of Charities in regard to this case.

(The telegrams referred to were marked "Exhibit 41" and appear as follows:)

LINCOLN, NEBR., *July 29, 1940.*

DEPARTMENT OF CHARITIES,
TRANSPORTATION SECTION,
434 South San Pedro Street, Los Angeles, Calif.:

Information concerning Ted Nelson family, letter July 12. Urgent. Verify residence and authorize return, our expense.

LANCASTER COUNTY RELIEF BUREAU,
Eighteenth and Que Streets.

JULY 30, 1940.

LANCASTER COUNTY RELIEF BUREAU,
Lincoln, Nebr.:

Reuttel Ted Nelson family. Do not send here. Cannot verify residence. Need names, addresses, employers reference, to verify. Three years' independent residence prior 3-6-39 when first aided.

LOS ANGELES COUNTY CHARITIES,
TRANSPORTATION SECTION, OTI UNIT.

TESTIMONY OF DR. H. E. GLATFELTER, OF CENTRAL CITY, NEBR.

Mr. CURTIS. Where do you live, Dr. Glatfelter?

Dr. GLATFELTER. At Central City, Nebr.

Mr. CURTIS. How long have you lived there?

Dr. GLATFELTER. Since 1896; about 44 years.

Mr. CURTIS. What is your business?

Dr. GLATFELTER. I have been a physician there, and I own a farm and own business property, and of course take care of them. I am a retired physician at this time. I am doing as much as ever for the farm property that I have, because I think it is the most essential thing that we have in Nebraska, the only thing that brings in revenue.

Mr. CURTIS. Yes. Now, doctor, you are familiar with an organization known as the Nebraska Pump Irrigation Association?

Dr. GLATFELTER. I am.

Mr. CURTIS. What office do you hold in that?

Dr. GLATFELTER. I hold none, but primarily, I think, the organization was formed by my pioneer efforts in that line.

Mr. CURTIS. Yes.

Dr. GLATFELTER. The reason I am here is that State Senator Gantz, whom we made president of the organization, asked me to come.

Mr. CURTIS. Now, that is Harry E. Gantz, of Alliance?

Dr. GLATFELTER. Yes. It was impossible for him to be present here, and he wired me last Saturday to come down and sort of "plug."

Mr. CURTIS. Now, Dr. Glatfelter, I have talked this matter over with you and you have prepared a written statement which you have submitted to the committee.

Dr. GLATFELTER. I have.

STATEMENT BY HARVEY E. GLATFELTER, OF CENTRAL CITY, NEBR.

Dr. Harvey E. Glatfelter, of Central City, Nebr., represents the Nebraska Pump Irrigation Association which is a State-wide organization, the president of which is State Senator Harry E. Gantz, Alliance, Nebr.

Evidence introduced on Monday, the 16th day of September before your investigation committee shows conclusively the cause of migration of the Nebraska citizens is entirely due to drought, and we concur in such a conclusion. Lack of rainfall and the lowering of our subterranean water table, which in substance means we are unable to make our land produce any crops, we Nebraskans are trying to have fortitude to stick on the farm, and have been optimistic with the belief each succeeding year will be another fruitful year—the kind of years for many prior years from 1929 Nebraskans have been accustomed to—years of wonderful success in the production of agricultural products. It must be recognized we are in an agricultural State which means also stock raising, dairying, and fattening cattle, hogs, and sheep. However, a succession of 8 years of crop failure has been their only reward and destitution stares them in the face, and migration, if not corrected, will increase many fold. In these prior years, farmers were highly successful; farming was profitable, and many times Nebraska has been referred to as the "bread basket" in the United States. Natural forces and some man-made forces have contributed to bring about adverse forces which has destroyed the main essential agent—water, water, and more water, which has produced and matured our agriculture, our crops of corn, small grain, alfalfa, and our natural prairie grass and pastures. Naturally, then, farmers and businessmen endeavored to seek greener fields in abundance, so that they may live and prosper, which, of course, is a cause of migration.

Nebraska always has had a restricted rainfall, even in the most productive years—there always occurred the need of supplemental water, that if available, would assure a more bountiful harvest. Rainfall, many times even though abundant, would probably be delayed a week or two and in the interim, the hot winds would destroy and curtail crop production. In our productive years referring to the Platte Valley concerning about 2,000,000 acres of agricultural land and what I have to say more or less refers to a large part of the areas in other sections of the State, especially, too, in the Republican Water Shed. I want to get this word-painted picture before you—the Platte Valley before the Platte River has been made a dry river bed. We had the benefit of subirrigation, because of the influence of a flowing stream of water in the Platte River giving a hydrostatic pressure which had a great effect on keeping the level of our subsurface water high enough so we were benefited by subirrigation. The level was high enough to touch our top soils. When that is the case, capillary attraction works, and, therefore, every day there was enough moisture from underneath to mature crops and make an abundant yield regardless of the amount of rainfall. Nowhere in the world can you find such a large body of subterranean water that exists in the Platte Valley. One possible exception may be in the Valley of the Nile in Egypt. Dr. Lugn, geologist of the Nebraska University, estimates this subterranean body of water to be anywhere from 500,000,000 to 900,000,000 acre-feet of water. This body of water is still in existence and available, but is being wasted and of no natural benefit to anyone since its water table has been lowered 15 to 20 feet, and does not longer reach the bottom of our real heavy soil, only percolating through a subsoil of sand and gravel in which capillary attraction does not function. The process here is a filtering one, and if there is no hydrostatic pressure to meet the level of this body of water, the level goes lower and lower and of no benefit to anyone.

One of the functions of your committee as I have it, is to seek a solution to prevent the migration of our farmers to other sections of the country. I am offering to this committee, I think, a logical solution for our Nebraska farmers' ills. If we can take and succeed in taking advantage of the more than adequate water supply and our 900,000,000 acre-feet of subterranean water is an adequate water supply which means that by the installation of pump irrigation with financial help from the Government on a reasonable basis, not as a gift, but as a loan to be paid for in a period of 10 to 15 years and can be paid for easily by the results obtained from the installation of such a measure. Pump irrigation is a proven fact as to its success, for example: An 8-inch pump will usually give a capacity of 1,000 gallons of water per minute, and will irrigate 80 acres of land at a cost of $2 or $3 per acre for the season. One of its great advantages is that water is available instantly when needed. There is no waiting for a "ditch rider" to come along and portion out water as in ditch irrigation; there is no need to wait for a rainfull: it is instantly at your command. In the Platte Valley, from North Platte east, there can be obtained at 40- and 50-foot depths a sufficient supply of water to supply an 8-inch pump producing a thousand gallons of water per minute. This is not theory; these are facts sustained by actual installations, the cost of which in this territory would run about a thousand to $1,200 per well with a complete installation—one pump and well casing and the construction of a complete well and power unit. South of the Platte in the Hamilton, York, Clay, and other counties, the depth to obtain a sufficient supply of water would range from a hundred to 150 feet and, of course, proportionately to depth the installation cost will average higher, ranging from $2,000 to $3,000 per installation.

Out at Alliance, Nebr., 2 years ago, there was a rancher who installed pump irrigation, a well 310 feet in depth, with a large pump unit that pumped 2,400 gallons of water per minute. The installation cost of this well was $6,000. The rancher irrigated 160 acres of potatoes and other crops on a section of land, and at the end of the season he deposited $50,000 in the bank. Here is a citation in the Platte Valley where conditions are more favorable for pump irrigation. Mr. A. Thompson, of Central City, Nebr., with mostly second-hand equipment, installed one 8-inch pump and one 6-inch pump. In using second-hand equipment, the cost of the two installations was about $700. Last year he raised 80 bushels of corn to the acre and this land is not as fertile as most land in Merrick County or in the Platte Valley. Mr. Thompson has a dairy. He milks 40 cows. Ten acres of his land he has sown to sudan grass. He divided this 10 acres into 3 lots, pasturing 1 lot while he was irrigating the others—then alterating pasturing in each lot in succession, and this was sufficient for the pasturing of 40 cows during the entire growing season. What a pot of gold! I am sure these results can be secured on 75 percent of the land in the Platte Valley. With such results I don't believe that you could even force migration in Nebraska to other points.

In Dawson County, pump irrigation wells are producing 80 to 100 bushels of corn, 4 tons of alfalfa to the acre. In fact, east from North Platte to Central City to Columbus and Columbus east to Waterloo—the same terrain exists. Wells in this section need to be only 40 to 50 feet deep and such a gift of nature certainly should not be wasted, but opportunity and assistance given to make full use of this wonderful water facility. Unfortunately, the past terrible years have created an unusual emergency. Next spring, if nothing is done in the meantime to remedy the situation, you will witness the greatest migration of farmers to other sections of the country. I am advised there will be more farm sales next spring than in all the combined previous drought years.

That's my reason for being here today. The resources of these farmers and the businessmen in the small towns serving these farmers are exhausted, and I believe that you, as a committee, Congress, the Senate, and the President of the United States are just as interested as we are in securing some means to solve this migration. Therefore, it is our association's belief the Government should broaden out on their aid facilities and suggest you secure some such aid provision for financing installation of pump irrigation at a low rate of interest, the principal to be paid in annual payments beginning 3 years after installation of the project. Of course, interest at a low rate, for example about 3 or 3½ percent each year, should be paid at the end of the first year of the loan. I am asking for a deferment for at least 3 years from the installation in paying off the yearly installments of the principal for the reason the farmer is so beset today without any resources, and it takes at least 3 years to finally have the land worked over so he can obtain the supreme results of irrigation—then 10 or 15 years to amortize the principal. We solicit your committee make an immediate emergency request for such financing. Then you will have solved the migration problem in Nebraska. In addition, the installation of such irrigation facilities will absorb all the unemployment existing in the State of Nebraska. Your other projects, Work Projects Administration, and the various assistance aids will become obsolete factors and no more will there be a necessity for them to function. Nebraskans then, as a whole, will find themselves in a prosperous, contented, fruitful community.

Experience proves when successful irrigation is in effect, population increases three to four fold. Each irrigation project will at least require the employment of one or two extra men, and if generally employed, there are about 2,000,000 acres in the Platte Valley region alone that would be available for pump irrigation. As to the statement of increase in population, I refer you to the census statistics in our last census of Scotts Bluff, Nebr., where irrigation (both pump and ditch irrigation) is employed, and general prosperity prevails. In that region, they don't ever seem to have heard of our panic. We implore you to give the opportunity to obtain and use this "pot of gold"—reasonable financial Federal help will do the job. Our citizens do not want charity. We here are such who believe in the American way of living—an opportunity to earn an existence by the sweat of our brow.

TESTIMONY OF DR. H. E. GLATFELTER—Resumed

Mr. CURTIS. Your statement will be incorporated in the hearings and will be considered in our report to Congress next January. And if you have been around here the last day or two, you know that your testimony supplements the testimony of others on the subject of pump irrigation. Now, if you care in your own way to stress any particular points, or emphasize them for a brief time, anything that you have in your written statement, I would be glad to hear from you at this time.

ADVOCATES UTILIZATION OF SUBLEVEL WATER IN NEBRASKA

Dr. Glatfelter. I would just like to say that the fertility of most of our soil is still here in Nebraska. There is just one thing lacking, one thing we need: That is water, water, and more water. Nebraska generally has always been in a restricted rainfall district. In prior years we had the benefit of a high level of a subterranean sea of water, and that particular body of water is what I want to make some forceful effort to picture to you. If you could get supplemental water, and there is plenty of it underneath us—but in the last 10 or 15 years, gradually from year to year the level of that subterranean water has gone lower and lower, until now it is about 10 or 20 feet from the surface. In prior years that level was high enough so that most of Nebraska, especially the district in the Platte Valley, received the benefit of that by subirrigation. The level was high enough so that it touched the bottom of our heavy soils, and in our heavy soil capillary attraction caused it to come up, and from day to day and year to year provided sufficient moisture to raise plenty and bountiful crops without even rainfall.

In those years prior to that, even when rainfall was more plentiful than now, Nebraska always found that at certain times of the year, especially in July and August, when the hot winds were around, that the rainfall, even though it was plentiful, was probably delayed for about 2 or 3 weeks, and it was too late to be of benefit. Yet we had in those years the benefit of subirrigation, and if we had not had that, we would have had no crops—just as we are today. The last 8 years, the Platte Valley isn't producing. The reason they aren't producing much over in the Republican Basin, the Platte Valley Basin, and the region generally over the State is, to some degree, more or less on account of this water level going down so low that it is in the sand and gravel strata that exists in most of the State of Nebraska.

Mr. Curtis. In other words, you want to leave with this committee that at least one important factor in the outward migration of these people, and all the problems it creates over the United States, one of those problems is the matter of utilizing our underground water to improve our growing of crops in this territory?

Dr. Glatfelter. That is right.

Mr. Curtis. And you advocate such utilization?

Dr. Glatfelter. That is what I advocate in the State of Nebraska, and I believe it will solve 80 percent of the trouble.

Mr. Curtis. That is the position of the Nebraska Pump Irrigation Association?

Dr. Glatfelter. Yes.

Mr. Curtis. How large a membership do you have?

Dr. Glatfelter. I presume at this time we must have 2,000.

Mr. Curtis. Are those individuals or are they chambers of commerce?

Dr. Glatfelter. They are individuals and chambers of commerce—the Omaha Chamber of Commerce, the South Omaha Livestock Men, and there are members from each village, and farmers throughout the State.

Mr. CURTIS. Now, in reference to this organization you represent, I am going to ask you one more question: Do you have any paid officers or paid promoters? Have you borrowed any money from the Government or county, or is it just composed of some public-spirited people whose heart and soul is in this thing?

Dr. GLATFELTER. Absolutely a public-spirited proposition.

Mr. CURTIS. Well, the paper is very fine, and we are glad to have your oral emphasis here, and we thank you very much.

Dr. GLATFELTER. If I may, please, make this statement——

Mr. CURTIS. Yes.

PUMP IRRIGATION

Dr. GLATFELTER. We feel that it is absolutely necessary that the Government should provide some set-up, by enlarging perhaps the water facilities program, so as to permit borrowing money for the installation of pump equipment. There is no provision anywhere; bankers won't take hold of it, except that the F. H. A. will give you a loan on that kind of property for 3 years, but, as my paper stated, 3 years is too short a time; if you know anything about irrigation, it will take a man 3 years before he first becomes proficient in handling his water, to get proper results from irrigation.

Mr. PARSONS. Can you irrigate with pumping on that level land, as it is? I was out through that central part of Nebraska day before yesterday.

Dr. GLATFELTER. This is the most ideal land for irrigation you will find anywhere in the world. There is just a little gradual fall (7 feet to the mile) from the southwest to the northeast, and with very little effort every foot of that land can be properly irrigated, and without much expense.

Mr. PARSONS. How much will it cost per acre to do it?

Dr. GLATFELTER. I have made a statement of that in my paper—$2 to $3 per acre per season. In our section, the installation of pumps with the very best equipment will cost about a thousand to twelve hundred dollars per well.

Mr. PARSONS. Now, is that a valley pump?

Dr. GLATFELTER. That is in the valley.

Mr. PARSONS. How far is that to water?

Dr. GLATFELTER. To water, 10 to 20 feet; entire depth of well is thirty-five to fifty feet, and you have an abundance of water, as I stated in my paper.

Mr. PARSONS. About 80 feet up on the hill?

Dr. GLATFELTER. Eighty to one hundred and twenty feet, and I cite in my paper a well under other difficulties, put in place out near Alliance, Nebr., 2 years ago. A man spent $6,000 for a well. His well is 310 feet deep. The well is producing 2,400 gallons of water per minute, and he is irrigating a section of land. It was the only green spot in Alliance, so Gantz tells me. The results of that first year of irrigation, 160 acres of which was in potatoes and the balance in other forage crops, corn, and that sort of thing, at the end of that season that man put $50,000 in the bank. So I want you to know that every 80 acres throughout the Platte Valley, and perhaps most of every 80 acres down in your Republican Valley, and when you go south in your hilly land, there are places that can be properly irrigated. The wells may be 150 to 175 feet deep, but they will be profitable; they will be raising a crop each year, and an insurance policy that guarantees you a lifetime revenue.

Mr. CURTIS. Now, Doctor, is it a safe and conservative statement to say that pump irrigation in Nebraska is no longer an experiment? You know what you can do?

Dr. GLATFELTER. That is absolutely true.

Mr. CURTIS. And do you favor the simplest type of financing that the Government can devise over a long period of time?

Dr. GLATFELTER. That is it; that is it.

Mr. PARSONS. Let us get back to a quarter, 160 acres. How much do you estimate it would cost in the Platte Valley to install and irrigate crops on 160 acres of land that is reasonably adapted to that kind of irrigation?

Dr. GLATFELTER. It will cost, for the installation of the pump, with a very first-class kind of equipment, direct-connected, and a combination pump, one thousand to twelve hundred dollars. It will cost $2 per 24-hour day for fuel expense and oil for the motor equipment.

Mr. PARSONS. What if you had R. E. A.? You could probably get along for 50 or 75 cents a day?

Dr. GLATFELTER. Unfortunately, the R. E. A., as I understand it, in the State of Nebraska, hasn't provided the proper lines to give the amount of power that you need for pump irrigation. I mean by that that in the rural sections they have only single-phase lines. Single-phase lines will not carry a motor larger than five horsepower. In order to make a proper use of your electrical current, it will be necessary to have a three-phase line, so that you can install a motor with sufficient power to run an 8- or 10-inch pump, 15 to 20 horsepower.

Mr. PARSONS. Can't they install transformers to take care of that situation, stepping up the power?

Dr. GLATFELTER. I think they would have to make additions to the present lines that they are building.

Mr. PARSONS. So you estimate an expenditure of $1,200 for 160 acres. Would that include all the pipes and connections on top, to put the water in the fields?

Dr. GLATFELTER. It would. It will cost you per year operating expense per acre $2 to $3, and that $2 or $3 extra expense, it has been demonstrated there in Central City, will produce this: We have one dairyman there that has 10 acres of sudan grass. He divided that 10 acres into three parts. He irrigated one part; then he put 40 milk cows on that one-third of that 10 acres. And while they are pasturing in that section alternately and in rotation, he goes around and irrigates his sudan grass in the other sections. That 10 acres, just to show you what pump irrigation will do when it is properly done, supported 40 milk cows.

Mr. PARSONS. When the cows are in one part he irrigates the next part, and so forth?

Dr. GLATFELTER. That is right. And that has produced, for the season, sufficient pasturage for 40 milk cows. Don't you think that is a big pot of gold?

Mr. PARSONS. It sounds like a pretty good story.

Dr. GLATFELTER. This is subject to proof, absolute proof.

Mr. PARSONS. And when I have seen these farmers stay on this drought soil out here, I don't doubt anything is possible in Nebraska.

Mr. CURTIS. I have been trying to convince you what kind of people we have, and that is absolutely right.

Dr. GLATFELTER. If you want to solve the migration problem in Nebraska, gentlemen, 90 percent of it will be solved by furnishing money for installation of pumps.

Mr. CURTIS. How much do you estimate it would take to put in pump irrigation for the State of Nebraska, in the places you discussed?

Dr. GLATFELTER. Well, we had a proposition up that we needed 300 pumps in Merrick County, and it could be established on more than that, a greater number, even 1,000 and perhaps more. A $5,000,000 fund would be a starter for the State.

Mr. PARSONS. Don't you think these insurance companies own these farms?

Dr. GLATFELTER. They own some, but not so very much in Merrick County. We don't figure that they have done anything to Merrick County. I don't know what they have been doing otherwise.

Mr. PARSONS. It seems like they have got a little extra money to invest, if there is a good investment. It looks as if they would have tried it.

Dr. GLATFELTER. I want to say this to an insurance company: If you do own any land in Merrick County, or any land in the Platte Valley, for God's sake let that tenant that is on that farm have enough money to install an irrigation pump, and boy, you have got the world by the tail.

Mr. BRYANT. We have installed several already. We are right with you.

The CHAIRMAN. Have you already installed some?

Mr. BRYANT. Yes, sir.

The CHAIRMAN. Are they proving successful?

Mr. BRYANT. Yes; and we sell—for instance, we cooperate with the operator sometimes, in the proper places, in the cost of installation of a pump. There is one item of cost you haven't taken into consideration, however—the cost of leveling.

Mr. PARSONS. That is what I thought.

Dr. GLATFELTER. Well, that depends more or less upon the terrain. But generally, throughout this Platte Valley, that cost will not be very high. For that reason I suggested that any financing that is proposed should not compel the farmer to start liquidating the principal until at least 3 years after the installation. He can pay it easily.

Mr. PARSONS. And then give him 25 or 30 years to pay?

Dr. GLATFELTER. Yes—well, say 10 or 15 are more than sufficient. We wouldn't ask 20 or 25 years. Why, this man—in nearly every case he will have the entire thing liquidated before such a loan would be due.

Mr. PARSONS. How much land do you own and operate, Dr. Glatfelter?

Dr. GLATFELTER. I own and operate a half section of land, and I haven't installed pumps. I am installing some this fall, but it is hard to finance.

Mr. PARSONS. You are sold on the idea, are you?

Dr. GLATFELTER. I sure am. It is the only thing in the world that will put Nebraska on the map again.

The CHAIRMAN. Thank you, Dr. Glatfelter.

Mr. KRAMER. At this time I should like to offer several statements and letters for the record.

First I have a file of questionnaires from the Nebraska State Department of Public Instruction, showing the number of migrant children in the public schools.

(The papers referred to were the letter below, and a number of questionnaires which are not printed.)

STATE OF NEBRASKA,
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
Lincoln, September 16, 1940.

To the Special Committee Investigating the Interstate Migration of Destitute Citizens.

(Attention of Mr. Robert K. Lamb, chief investigator of the special committee.)

GENTLEMEN: In response to your request for information in regard to the problem of migrant children, we submit the following:

Number of children of school age (5 to 21 years), 1920–39, Nebraska (figures as found in State superintendent's biennial report, compiled from county superintendent's annual reports to State department of public instruction):

1920	392, 592
1929	416, 644
1933	419, 401
1939	376, 909

Reports have been received from 28 county superintendents, namely, Elmer Lindahl, Antelope; Mrs. Grace Hamaker, Brown; J. Mike McCoy, Cedar; Edwin M. Wieland, Clay; F. J. Vogltance, Colfax; Miss Mary Wiltse, Deuel; H. M. Eaton, Douglas; Miss Emma Renken, Fillmore; Maurice McAvoy, Franklin; Edward Sime, Garfield; Miss Ida Foster, Greeley; Eldon Cunningham, Hall; O. L. Scranton, Hamilton; Wayne Fitzgerald, Hooker; Mrs. Blanche Pfrehm, Howard; Alton Wagner, Johnson; Clyde Maase, Kearney; Mrs. Marcia Smith, Loup; Mrs. Harriett Hogue, McPherson; Mrs. Viola Weatherfield, Nemaha; Miss Mary Clarke, Pawnee; Mrs. Grace Huff, Phelps; Miss Clara Parks, Pierce; Glen Estes, Rock; Miss Clara McClatchey, Valley; Miss Zelma Wonderly, Webster; Myron Holm, York; Mrs. Alice Blausey, Garden. These reports are in response to questions sent out from this office.

One hundred and thirty-eight children have entered our rural schools the last 2 years, from 9 States. States are listed on tally sheet I.

Ninety children have entered our town schools the last 2 years, from 9 States. States are listed on tally sheet II.

The counties reporting that these children have been satisfactorily taken care of in our Nebraska schools are Antelope, Brown, Cedar, Clay, Deuel, Douglas, Garfield, Hall, Hamilton, Howard, Johnson, Kearney, McPherson, Nemaha, Pawnee, Phelps, Pierce, Rock, Valley, Webster, York. (See tally sheet III.)

The 22 counties reporting that help is needed in the retaining of our farm population on the farm in the face of drought and financial problems are Antelope, Brown, Clay, Colfax, Douglas, Fillmore, Franklin, Garfield, Greeley, Hall, Hamilton, Howard, Kearney, Loup, McPherson, Phelps, Pierce, Rock, Valley, Webster, York, Garden. (See tally sheet IV.)

The 26 counties reporting that small enrollments in rural schools enable teachers to take care of migrant children from other States and those in our State are Antelope, Brown, Clay, Colfax, Deuel, Douglas, Fillmore, Franklin, Garfield, Greeley, Hall, Hamilton, Howard, Johnson, Kearney, Loup, McPherson, Nemaha, Pawnee, Phelps, Pierce, Rock, Valley, Webster, York, Garden, Dodge, Sarpy, Nuckolls. (See tally V.)

Particular problems reported by the counties:

Brown.—Low valuation over great areas. Few families in a district, and if the school is centrally located, yet many have from 2½, 3, 4, and even 7 miles to go to school. Consolidation could not be the solution—distance too great, with no roads, just trails.

Clay.—Decreased enrollments. Many rural schools have been closed. Financial conditions are such that the continued operation of the schools is a question. Many of our levies are below 8 mills, but based on the theory, "ability to pay," is the problem. If we don't raise anything, farmers and others cannot pay taxes. National Youth Administration has been restricted. We do not have nearly a sufficient quota for our schools.

Fillmore.—Our problem is one of decreasing population. Our people are moving from the farms to Iowa, Illinois, and Oregon. Several of our rural schools have been closed because the attendance would be only one, two, or three.

Greeley.—Lack of funds to carry on our school work, especially in obtaining new books, equipment, etc. Average wages of rural teachers last year, $45.

Hooker.—With regard to tenure and maintaining a sufficient number of families to hold school. It is difficult for a family to start modestly—two or more sections of land are minimum for ranching—capital is required to stock the land. This also raises other problems; transportation is poorly handled because of poor roads and longer distances between homes and schools.

Howard.—Families leaving the farm due to drought conditions.

Kearney.—The immigration of families from our county to other States. This problem might be solved if this part of the country would come back to its normal rainfall; but since we cannot do anything about that, it would help if something could be done to put water on most of our farms by irrigation.

Rock.—The biggest problem in this county has been the buying of small ranches by the large ranchers, thus causing many families to move to town and go on W. P. A.

York.—Many families leaving their farms. Most of them move to other States. Some families have moved into nearby towns. Irrigated districts are sought. Our census shows a steady decline.

Garden.—Pupils coming in late spring or moving away around first of the year. It is a difficult problem, especially with seventh- and eighth-grade pupils.

Respectfully submitted.

CHARLES W. TAYLOR,
State Superintendent of Public Instruction.
By CHLOE C. BALDRIDGE,
Director, Rural and Elementary Education.

Mr. KRAMER. I have a letter from Chloe C. Baldridge, director, rural and elementary education for Nebraska, and it deals with Mr. C. L. Pollock, Meadville, Nebr., and his problem in providing school privileges for his child.

(The letter referred to appears below:)

STATE OF NEBRASKA,
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
Lincoln, August 23, 1940.

MR. ROBERT K. LAMB,
Chief Investigator, House of Representatives, Washington, D. C.

DEAR MR. LAMB: This information relates to Mr. C. L. Pollock, Meadville, Nebr., and his problem in providing school privileges for his child.

District 57 and district 15 of Brown County have been made into 1 district. It now contains between 15 and 17 sections. Valuation is $36,600; the levy is 8 mills. Expenditures for last year were $696.29. State aid last year amounted to $411.52. The director, Mr. C. L. Pollock, states that 6 pupils between 7 and 16 will be enrolled next year. Mr. Pollock lives near the Niobrara River, and in order to get his one child, 6 years old, to school he will have to drive 4½ to 5 miles each way, twice a day. The district has offered Mr. Pollock $0.20 a day, which would be $4 a school month. Mr. Pollock asks for $20 for transportation. Last year Mr. Pollock paid $5 a month for a cabin across the river. His one child then went three-fourths of a mile to school, in district 8, Keya Paha County.

Mr. Pollock's statement: "I've got to have somewhere near the cost of transportation, or else I'll just have to get out and go where I can get to a school or else go on W. P. A. to get it. That's what the wind-up will be, if I have to stand another year like this."

Respectfully submitted.

CHLOE C. BALDRIDGE,
Director, Rural and Elementary Education.
MR. C. L. POLLOCK,
Director, District 57, Brown County.

SUPPLEMENTAL STATEMENT OF CHLOE E. BALDRIDGE, DIRECTOR, RURAL AND ELEMENTARY EDUCATION FOR NEBRASKA

STATE OF NEBRASKA,
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
Lincoln, November 2, 1940.

Special Committee Investigating the Interstate Migration of Destitute Citizens.

(Attention of Mr. Robert K. Lamb, chief investigator of the special committee; Mr. Kramer.)

GENTLEMEN: In response to your request for information in regard to the problem of migrant children, we submitted for your record information under the date of September 16. At that time reports had been received from 28 counties. Since that time we have received reports from 15 additional counties, making in all 43 reports from county superintendents of the following counties: Antelope, Brown, Cedar, Clay, Colfax, Deuel, Douglas, Fillmore, Franklin, Garfield, Greeley, Hall, Hamilton, Hooker, Howard, Johnson, Kearney, Loup, McPherson, Nemaha, Pawnee, Phelps, Pierce, Rock, Valley, Webster, York, Garden, Blaine, Boyd, Cass, Cheyenne, Dawson, Dixon, Dodge, Dundy, Gosper, Hitchcock, Madison, Merrick, Seward, Sheridan, Wheeler.

From all reports, we find the following:

1. Two hundred and forty-nine children have entered our rural schools the last 2 years, from nine States.
2. Four hundred and one children have entered our town schools in the last 2 years, from nine States.
3. The counties reporting that these children have been satisfactorily taken care of in our Nebraska schools are Antelope, Brown, Cedar, Clay, Deuel, Douglas, Garfield, Hall, Hamilton, Howard, Johnson, Kearney, McPherson, Nemaha, Pawnee, Phelps, Pierce, Rock, Valley, Webster, York, Garden, Blaine, Boyd, Cass, Nance, Cheyenne, Dawson, Dixon Dodge, Dundy, Gosper, Hitchcock, Madison, Merrick, Seward, Sheridan, Wheeler.
4. The counties reporting that help is needed in the retaining of our farm population on the farm in the face of drought and financial problems are Antelope,

Brown, Clay, Colfax, Douglas, Fillmore, Franklin, Garfield, Greeley, Hall, Hamilton, Howard, Kearney, Loup, McPherson, Phelps, Pierce, Rock, Valley, Webster, York, Garden, Blaine, Boyd, Cheyenne, Dawson, Dixon, Dundy, Gosper, Hitchcock, Madison, Merrick, Nance, Seward, Sheridan, Wheeler.

5. The counties reporting that small enrollments in rural schools enable teachers to take care of migrant children from other States, and those in our State are Antelope, Brown, Clay, Colfax, Deuel, Douglas, Fillmore, Franklin, Garfield, Greeley, Hall, Hamilton, Howard, Johnson, Kearney, Loup, McPherson, Nemaha, Pawnee, Phelps, Pierce, Rock, Valley, Webster, York, Garden, Blaine, Boone, Cass, Cheyenne, Dawson, Dodge, Dundy, Hitchcock, Madison, Merrick, Nance, Seward, Sheridan, Wheeler.

6. Particular problems:

Boyd.—Retention of youth on the farm, with a result that a number of our rural schools have too small enrollments.

Cass.—Trailer families.

Cheyenne.—People losing their farms because they could not meet the payments due to drought.

Dundy.—People have moved out of the county because of crop conditions and no work.

Hitchcock.—Parents who have left State and wanting to leave high-school students to finish school here, and pay no tuition. However, in all cases the local town district or the county has made it possible for such children to complete their work here without the parents paying. All such instances have been of families who had been long-time residents of this county and had been forced out by the drought.

Logan.—The population of this county has decreased because of the tendency toward larger farm and ranch units. Operators are enlarging their ranches and farms, and tenant farmers are finding it difficult to locate places.

Merrick.—People leaving the county on account of drought conditions. Rain or some means of irrigation about the only solution.

Nance.—Decreasing school population in rural schools.

Other particular problems were listed on the report for September 16.

Respectfully submitted.

CHARLES W. TAYLOR.
State Superintendent.
By CHLOE C. BALDRIDGE,
Director, Rural and Elementary Education.

Mr. KRAMER. Also a letter from R. T. Malone, director, Nebraska Unemployment Compensation Division.

(The letter referred to reads as follows:)

STATE OF NEBRASKA,
Lincoln, September 11, 1940.

Miss ARIEL V. E. DUNN,
Assistant Field Investigator,
Lincoln, Nebr.

DEAR MISS DUNN: This letter is written in compliance with your verbal request that the unemployment compensation division give you a statement about the unemployment compensation law of Nebraska with respect to migratory workers.

The only provision of our law which affects claimants who leave the State of Nebraska is that which appears at section 48–705 of the Nebraska Statutes and which reads as follows:

"An individual shall be disqualified for benefits: (*a*) For the week in which he has left work voluntarily without good cause, if so found by the commissioner, and for not more than the 5 weeks which immediately follow such week, as determined by the commissioner according to the circumstances in each case; *Provided*, That such individual shall be disqualified from benefits for any week of unemployment when he does not report in person to a Nebraska State Employment Service office."

This provision means that if a claimant is once disqualified for benefits for leaving his job voluntarily without good cause, he can never draw benefits against the unemployment compensation fund of Nebraska for so long as he remains outside of the State.

The exception to this would be that if he lives in a bordering State, close enough so that he can travel across the Nebraska boundary to a Nebraska State Employment Service office, he may draw benefits even though living in another State.

If he files a claim in Nebraska and is disqualified for leaving work voluntarily without good cause, and then during the benefit year, moves to another State, his benefits are automatically stopped. Then, if he returns to Nebraska during that same benefit year, he may again commence to draw the remaining balance of his total benefit amount.

Many people have misunderstood this provision of the Nebraska law, in that they believed all claimants who leave the State are denied benefits. That is not the case. They are denied benefits when they leave the State only in the event they have first been disqualified for leaving work voluntarily without good cause.

Yours very truly,

R. T. MALONE,
Director, Unemployment Compensation Division.

Mr. KRAMER. Then I have a letter from the Department of Public Welfare of Wyoming; an editorial from the Great Falls Tribune, Great Falls, Mont.; a paper by Robert D. Lusk; and the preliminary report of the Montana State Planning Board on "Development of Economic Opportunities in Montana for Migratory and Stranded Families." I should like to offer these for the record.

The CHAIRMAN. Without objection, they may be incorporated in the record.

(A letter, Department of Public Welfare, Cheyenne, Wyo., was identified and appears as follows:)

THE STATE OF WYOMING,
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC WELFARE,
Cheyenne, August 22, 1940.

Mr. M. C. REDMAN,
Chief Field Investigator,
Lincoln, Nebr.

DEAR MR. REDMAN: We have your inquiry of August 19 relative to the method used in Wyoming in handling transient cases. We are quoting from the Wyoming Public Welfare Act, as well as the Manual of Instructions:

PUBLIC WELFARE ACT

"SEC. 38. Whenever any person not qualifying as a resident of the State, as provided in this act, shall require relief in any county of this State, the county department of such county shall provide whatever general relief it may deem necessary in accordance with the rules and regulations of the State department: *Provided, however,* That the county department shall promptly communicate with the proper officials of the county and State in which said person has residence or domicile requesting authority to return said person to his place of residence. Upon receipt of such authority the county department shall provide for the transportation and expenses en route of such transient person to his place of residence; when such transient or nonresident be possessed of property other than the personal effects necessary for decency and health, he shall be required to dispose of such property and the proceeds therefrom shall be applied toward the purchase of the necessary transportation and expenses."

MANUAL OF INSTRUCTIONS

"By regulation the following policies governing nonresident relief have been established: Relief must be provided to nonresidents when it is necessary. However, in such cases the county department must, without delay, take steps to determine the desirability and possibility of returning the person to his place of legal residence. The relief that is provided shall be consistent with the standards of that given to residents receiving general relief. No nonresidents are to be given transportation until authorization has been received for return to their place of legal residence or to a place of confirmed employment. In such cases, transportation and expenses given shall be sufficient to take the person to his destination. No transportation is to be furnished in automobiles except in cases where a group is to be returned and such a plan would be cheaper than transportation by public carrier. No county is to continue "hand-out" or "pass-along" policies of nonresident or transient care. Such policies offer no solution to the problem of transients and in most instances only encourage them and are simply the means of passing the burden on to somebody else."

We hope that this information will be of some value to you.

Very truly yours,

S. S. HOOVER,
Director.
By E. H. SCHUNEMAN,
Assistant Director.

(An editorial from the Great Falls Tribune, Great Falls, Mont., was marked as an exhibit and appears as follows:)

EDITORIAL FROM THE GREAT FALLS TRIBUNE

GREAT FALLS, MONT., August 12, 1940.—Among the prairie States west of the Mississippi preliminary census returns indicate a considerable loss of farm population. The so-called dust-bowl migration, due to the severe drought of recent years that attracted Nation-wide attention, was evidently a major shift in farm population.

It has been announced that the new census figures show a population decrease in Oklahoma from 1930 to 1940 of 72,000. Nebraska shows a loss of people amounting to 64,000. South Dakota registered a loss of 52,000, and North Dakota of 43,000. Figures from Kansas were not complete at the last report, but the trend seems to be the same there.

In the returns from those States large towns and cities as a rule had bigger populations than 10 years ago, so even the foregoing figures do not completely tell the story of the migration of farmers from the grain-growing sections of that belt. The excess of births over deaths also must be considered in appraising the scope of the abandonment of prairie farms.

Montana was the only State in 1930 to show a population decrease, but in this census our State has again gained in number of people and has even gone beyond the 1920 figures. The shifting of farm population did affect some of our prairie counties in the last 10 years, but the State as a whole made a decisive gain.

The shift in people was from the prairie counties in some of the States in the Grain Belt. In States with much irrigation there has been no such loss. The movement of people from grain-belt farms was largely to more western areas where they are far from having satisfactorily relocated themselves as yet.

Whether the migration will result in an increase in the size of the farm unit or a shift to stock growing or both can only be determined when it is possible to more carefully examine this year's census returns. But the reality of the westward movement is apparent. The growth of the large cities and towns in States losing considerable farm population is also a phase of the social change that followed the drought period which has yet to be analyzed. Unemployment and relief loads on a large scale undoubtedly have been the result of that movement.

(A paper, They're Raising Cane to Get Off Relief, by Robert D. Lusk, was marked as an exhibit and appears in the supplemental file of exhibits; filed with the committee but not printed.)

(A preliminary report on Development of Economic Opportunities in Montana for Migratory and Stranded Families was marked as an exhibit and appears in the supplemental file of exhibits; filed with the committee and not printed.)

(A letter from Mrs. John Hakel, Ceresco, Nebr., was received as an exhibit and appears in the supplemental file of exhibits; filed with committee record and not printed.)

(A statement by Gladys Talbott Edwards, National Director of Education, Farmers Educational and Cooperative Union of America, was submitted and appears as follows:)

STATEMENT BY GLADYS TALBOTT EDWARDS, NATIONAL DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION, FARMERS EDUCATIONAL AND COOPERATIVE UNION OF AMERICA

Migration and Young People

Migrants are characterized by Dr. George Gleason in his bulletin, "The Fifth Migration" as falling into two general classifications—the habitual migrants, who, from choice or necessity, follow the fruit, vegetable, and cotton harvest, and the removal migrants who are actually dispossessed. Victims of low farm prices, drought, dust, insect pests, and rapid mechanization of farming, they move from one place to the next, year after year, in a hopeless effort to better their economic condition.

"Two moves is as bad as a fire" is an old saying of our grandparents, and with each move the scant equipment of the tenant becomes more scant, and the living conditions correspondingly lower.

Most of these people do not go to the promised mecca of the Western States. They move from one farm to another, as often as possible within the same county, in order to save moving expense. There is still another reason for staying in the same county. The everpresent danger of needing relief and of being unable to qualify in another county is a major factor here. Or they move from the farm into the town—not to get a job which doesn't exist but to be able to qualify for Work Projects Administration, the last desperate hope of the landless.

The agricultural ladder, farm laborer to farm tenant to farm owner, is upside down. It no longer offers hope to rural youth. In a survey of 131 farm tenant families in Nebraska, only 4 percent of the young people expressed a wish to become farmers. A North Dakota farm boy, representing the Farmers Union of that State at a conference on rural youth problems held in Washington in 1939, told Mrs. Roosevelt:

"The Agricultural ladder offers no hope for farm youth. It rungs are so filled with the older generation coming down that there is no place for the younger generation to take hold to climb."

When a farm laborer makes less than $100 per year (wages throughout the Great Plains States average $30 per month during the summer and $15 per month during the winter, which includes board and room), it is easily seen that the step even to tenancy is a long one. A farm tenant in the Great Plains States averages less than $500 per year income.

There is not the color and publicity value in the situation of these removal migrants of the Great Plains that there is in the desperate straits of the habitual migrants of the West, but there is here a great "facet" of the whole national problem of farm and urban migration, and one which must be considered if we are to solve, as a Nation, the serious difficulties which this problem has brought about.

THE EFFECTS UPON CHILDREN OF MIGRANT FAMILIES ARISING FROM—

Lack of adequate food, clothing, and shelter.—With an annual family income of less than $500, this including all produce raised and consumed on the farm, and with many family incomes far less than this, the type of food, clothing, and shelter available to tenant families is bound to be at a substandard level.

Dr. Will Alexander, former head of Farm Security Administration, estimates that a third of a million American children are living in transient camps, trailers, tents, and squalid tourist camps.

The buildings on tenant-operated farms are far below standard. Not many farm homes have running water, electricity, or furnace heat. Among the low-income group of tenants, whole roofs or floors are a luxury. Most tenant houses are small, and the effect of crowded living conditions, inadequate protection from cold in winter, and inadequate ventilation in summer, together with lack of toilet facilities and a good water supply, take a terrific toll in child health, both physical and mental.

A survey of 131 tenant families, made by Farm Security in Nebraska, shows that the children of these families are afflicted with poor eyesight, poor teeth, diseased tonsils, malnutrition, and nervous ailments to an alarming degree. Many of the nervous ailments, and the lack of mental health shown by the survey, is laid to crowded living quarters.

Of course, it is not only on the farm that the children of migrant families suffer from the lack of proper food, clothing, and shelter. Those families who have moved from the farm community, where there is no longer any means of support, into the town or city to work on Work Projects Administration have filled the shanty towns of the country and have brought added problems of juvenile delinquency into the towns.

The major portion of children of tenant families is in early childhood and thus particularly susceptible to infant diseases which undermine the health. There is a preponderance of youth in the heads of migrant families, arising undoubtedly from the fact that the farm has always furnished an urban population increase. Unemployment in the cities has caused the young farm male to attempt farming as a way of making a living, often taking over the farm rented by his parents and adding the burden of parental support to that of his own family.

In North Dakota in 1935 one-third of the total population of the State was on relief. No more need be said as to the amount of income. A great deal of this was perforce used for fuel. Food came next, the cheaper foods, starches and carbohydrates were next. Vitamin foods and clothes were last on the list.

In a store in Jamestown, N. Dak., last week, I saw the wife of a tenant farmer, the mother of five little girls, attempting to outfit them for school with a $5 bill. She was buying 49-cent dresses. These dresses will fade and shrink at the first washing, but $5 does not go far in dressing five children. It might have been possible to buy gingham by the yard for less money, but it is hardly probable that this woman owned a sewing machine.

Lack of decent clothing helps to develop in children an inferiority complex, sometimes as difficult to overcome as the rheumatism, chronic colds, and pneumonia which are also accompanists of improper clothing and food.

Lack of community life.—Since statistics show that the largest number of heads of migrant families are under 35 years of age, it follows that the children of those families are young. Statistics also show that more than 34 percent of these families have never lived on one farm for more than 1 year. These children have never known a stable home nor a place in the community.

The rural church has almost disappeared under the impact of the depression. Migrant families are not interested in maintaining a church. They do not attend church. The social life built around the rural school has deteriorated with the deterioration of the school building, the lowered income of rural school teachers, and the actual disappearance of the school.

In a survey of half a dozen States, it was found that only 1 percent of the migrant families attend farm organization meetings. Their only entertainment is the cheap movie or a carnival.

The number of migrant families subscribing to a newspaper or to a farm or church paper is very low. Thus children are deprived of the outside interests which might be brought into their lives.

They are handicapped by poor homes and by poor clothes. They have little opportunity to make friends among people of their own age; to take part in young people's activities or to invite friends into their homes. There is little chance to develop a feeling of community responsibility.

Whole communities have been devastated by the removal of dozens of families with the resultant loss in church, school, and community activities. Cooperatives have suffered from this migration in the loss of business and of shareholders. Forty families, who were members of a local cooperative moved from Hettinger County, N. Dak., in the space of one year, during the worst of the drought.

Although less than 2 percent of migrant families are noncitizens, they have no status in a community where there is still some semblance of ownership.

In areas where the tenants have attempted to organize to protect themselves against some of the more vicious practices of the corporation farm owners, there have been many cases of the abrogation of civil rights. All of this serves to bring to the children of such families a further feeling of inferiority or to develop in them a hatred of a society in which they appear to have no rights.

Inadequate schooling facilities.—In the mechanization of farms more than a million and a half workers have been displaced who can never again find work on the land. Moving this number of farmers off the land leaves large tracts sparsely settled, the only permanent inhabitants consisting of a half a dozen families for year-round work on a corporation farm. Schools close for lack of pupils. The remaining children in the community are often too far from any school to attend. Add to this the familiar problem of a lack of proper clothing for school, and the door of education is closed to thousands of children of migrant families.

In areas where the tenant population is constantly shifting, schools may be closed 1 year for lack of pupils, another for lack of finance to pay a teacher and provide fuel and equipment. Migrant families are unable to buy school books and a school board which does not feel a special duty toward children who will be here today and gone tomorrow blink at the compulsory-attendant law, fail to report that these children are deprived of education.

In many cases, migrant families are not in residence long enough to vote on school facilities, and are thus deprived of any chance to improve educational facilities.

Improper working conditions.—In families where the total income is extremely low, all members of the family who can find employment are forced to do so. Children work in the beet fields of North Dakota, South Dakota, and Nebraska, and children of tenants work in the grain fields of the Wheat Belt in order to save the cost of hired help. Young children are given the care of the still younger members of the family while the mother works in the fields or does other work to supplement the meager family income.

Long hours of work, insufficient feed, crowded quarters, and responsibilities beyond their years take the place of normal play and rest periods in the lives of these children. Stunted growth and mental apathy are the result.

THE DIFFICULTIES CONFRONTING YOUNG PERSONS OF MARRIAGEABLE AGE IN SECTIONS FROM WHICH LARGE NUMBERS OF PEOPLE ARE MIGRATING

A survey of youth made in North Dakota in 1939 shows that of the 2,119 young persons between 15 and 29 interviewed, only 8.7 percent of the men and 10.9 percent of the women were married. One-fifth of these young couples live with the parents of one or the other and two-fifths of the remainder attempt to keep a home together under conditions that are far below a decent living standard.

In the villages there is a slightly higher marriage rate than in the rural areas, since Work Projects Administration offers some chance of food and shelter, poor though it be. Only 25 percent of the youth born and brought up on farms can now make a living there. Since the number of farm youth who have gone beyond the eighth grade is very low, with an increasing loss in percentage in the higher brackets of education, there is little training for any other vocation than farming. This forces the youth onto the road, to become a part of another section of the migratory worker group.

Whole communities are practically depopulated of youth in this way. Those who remain because they are needed on the parents' farm find no chance for association with youth of their own age, little chance of recreation, and consequently little chance of following the normal culture pattern of friends, marriage, and home.

In areas already overpopulated by nonresident farm families, the chance to marry and start a home shows only two courses. To bring the new family into the home of the parent, with the difficulties entailed by this arrangement, or to join the ranks of migrants to another area. The fact that a large number of habitual migrant families consists of two or three people show that this is one of the most frequently chosen ways out. It is not one which is conducive to stable living nor to the development of a high ideal of democracy.

THE EXTENT OF FEDERAL, STATE, AND LOCAL FACILITIES FOR PROVIDING ADEQUATE SOCIAL ADVANTAGES FOR YOUNG FOLKS

The Farm Security Administration, through its loans to cooperatives, has opened a way whereby young people have an opportunity to become a part of the community life. Through its rehabilitation program it has offered new homes to many young persons, but the service still falls far short of the need. Through its migrant camps it has raised the living standards of the habitual migrants, and church groups have added to this program in providing community and health centers in the camps.

National Youth Administration has opened recreation and training centers and has made education possible for many young persons. Through these means, it has opened a medium for social advantages which are of great value. As has been stated of the work of Farm Security Administration, the main criticism of this program is that it is inadequate.

The Farmers Educational and Cooperative Union of America, through a program of low-cost summer camps, has opened a door to social intercourse to young rural people of the low-income group. Leadership training in recreation for community needs has been of value to many thousand rural youth in the Great Plains area. Cooperative marketing and purchasing associations have also had their part in helping rural youth toward better education and further advantages. The return of a patronage dividend with resultant added purchasing power and the opening of new jobs in the community through cooperatives are a part of the cooperative program which gets at the root of the trouble; that is, the lack of income and the lack of jobs.

REFERENCES

Farmers Without Land, Public Affairs Pamphlets.
Problems of Rural Youth in Selected Areas of North Dakota, Donald G. Hay.
Report—Health Program in Nebraska, Farm Security Administration.
The Fifth Migration, Dr. George Gleason.

The following statement was received subsequent to the hearing and accepted for the record:

IMPORTANT FACTORS AFFECTING MIGRATION OF RURAL POPULATION IN KANSAS

J. A. Hodges, Kansas State College, Manhattan, Kans.

The total population of Kansas increased, decade by decade, from the time the State was organized until 1930. However, much of the increase after 1890 was due to increase in urban population. The rural population showed little trend but was slightly less in 1930 than in 1890. From 1930 to 1940 the total population decreased from 1,880,999 to 1,799,137—approximately 4.5 percent. While census data for the 1940 rural population were not available at the time of writing, indications are that much of this decline occurred in rural population, particularly in the western section of the State.

Lack of persistency has been rather characteristic of Kansas farm population. Malin, after making a study of the persistence of farm operators in Kansas by rainfall belts, concludes that, "In all rainfall belts, the rate of turn-over was high, but was declining during the first 25 years from time of settlement. At about 20 to 30 years after settlement, the rate of turn-over may be said to have become somewhat stabilized, although the word stabilized must again be used loosely. In some cases, instead of stabilization, there was an increase in the rate of turn-over after that high point 25 years from settlement. After the World War, persistence increased substantially"[1] One interesting feature of the study was that it indicated curves of persistence highly similar for different rainfall belts. Another was that Malin found that, "In all parts of the State the original or early settlers and their descendants constitute an extremely small proportion of the later or contemporary community."[2] Some notable exceptions were found to the latter statement.

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[1] Malin, James C., The Turn-over of Farm Population in Kansas. The Kansas Historical Quarterly, vol. LV, No. 4, November 1935, p. 344.

[2] Ibid., p. 353.

In earlier periods migration from eastern counties to those farther west was not uncommon. Losses in eastern counties could be accounted for partly by increases in other counties, usually toward the west. Since 1930 the losses in one area apparently are not compensated for by gains in others. Instead of intracounty migration, a considerable proportion has been out of State.

TABLE 1.—*The population of Kansas, by sections, 1910–40*

[In thousands]

Census year	Eastern Kansas			Central Kansas			Western Kansas			The State		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
1910	581	356	937	481	131	612	135	7	142	1,197	494	1,691
1920	555	426	981	456	177	633	140	15	155	1,151	618	1,769
1930	551	460	1,011	434	245	679	166	25	191	1,151	730	1,881
1940 [1]			969			669			161			1,799

[1] Preliminary.

Source: United States census.

Table 1 indicates the changes in the total population of Kansas from 1910 to 1940 and for rural and urban population from 1910 to 1930. Rural population showed a gradual decline, decade by decade, in both central and eastern Kansas but a substantial increase in western Kansas. All sections showed a decrease in total population from 1930 to 1940, the relative decline being least in central Kansas and greatest in western Kansas. Some of the factors which probably have had an important bearing on the situation will be considered briefly.

SIZE OF FARM

The general trend of size of farms in Kansas has been upward since 1870. In 1910 the total land in Kansas farms averaged 244 acres. The average size at succeeding census periods was as follows: 1920, 275 acres; 1925, 264 acres; 1930, 283 acres; and in 1935, 275 acres. The averages are somewhat misleading since considerable variation in size occurs from one section of the State to another and different types of trends tend to offset each other. For example, the indicated decrease in size of farm from 1930 to 1935 was largely due to the increase in small farms of the self-sufficing or part-time type. During the decade after 1920 two trends were evident—many large ranches were cut up, and smaller farms were combined. In each case, the object was to obtain units of desirable size for mechanized grain production or a combination of grain production with other enterprises.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage of the number of farms in Kansas in specified size groups, by sections, 1910–35*

Section	Census year	Size group (acres)							Total
		Less than 50	50 to 99	100 to 174	175 to 259	260 to 499	500 to 999	1,000 or more	
Eastern Kansas	1910	15.9	22.0	33.7	13.8	11.2	2.6	0.8	100
	1920	14.5	19.2	34.2	15.6	13.0	2.7	.8	100
	1925	17.1	19.7	33.7	14.7	11.7	2.4	.7	100
	1930	17.5	17.9	31.5	15.7	13.5	3.0	.9	100
	1935	21.2	18.0	29.5	15.0	12.6	2.8	.9	100
Central Kansas	1910	7.2	10.0	32.6	18.5	24.9	5.8	1.0	100
	1920	6.2	7.8	30.1	19.7	28.7	6.5	1.0	100
	1925	7.4	7.8	28.2	20.0	29.3	6.4	.9	100
	1930	9.3	7.6	24.8	18.4	30.3	8.4	1.2	100
	1935	11.2	8.4	25.4	17.0	28.4	8.2	1.4	100
Western Kansas	1910	1.7	2.7	27.8	7.8	33.1	18.2	8.7	100
	1920	1.5	1.6	12.2	6.2	38.4	26.6	13.5	100
	1925	2.7	2.2	12.2	6.2	38.2	27.1	11.4	100
	1930	3.4	2.3	10.8	5.6	34.3	30.2	13.4	100
	1935	4.9	2.7	12.2	4.8	33.2	28.5	13.7	100
State	1910	10.5	14.7	32.5	15.0	19.5	5.9	1.9	100
	1920	9.4	12.3	29.7	16.1	22.7	7.3	2.5	100
	1925	11.3	12.5	28.5	15.7	22.4	7.4	2.2	100
	1930	12.2	11.6	25.8	15.4	23.1	9.1	2.8	100
	1935	15.0	12.1	25.4	14.3	21.7	8.6	2.9	100

Source: Calculated from United States census data.

The shifts in importance of various size groups from 1910 to 1935 are indicated in table 2. In eastern Kansas the increasing number of farms less than 50 acres was the most consistent change. In central Kansas there was some change in smaller farms but the more significant changes were in the larger sized groups. The percentage of farms in the 260- to 499-acre group changed from 24.9 in 1910 to 28.4 in 1935; in the 500–999 group, from 5.8 to 8.2; and in the group with 1,000 acres or more, from 1.0 to 1.4. In western Kansas the more important changes occurred in the farms with 500 acres or more. The decrease of the percentage of farms of the "100–174"-acre group, mostly quarter sections, from 27.8 in 1910 to 10.8 in 1930 should also be noted.

TABLE 3.—*Percentage of farm land in aKnsas in specified size groups, by sections, 1920–35*

Section	Census year	Size group (acres)							Total
		Less than 50	50 to 99	100 to 174	175 to 259	260 to 499	500 to 999	1,000 or more	
Eastern Kansas	1920	1.8	8.1	27.2	18.6	24.7	9.9	9.7	100.0
	1925	2.1	8.9	28.7	18.6	23.6	9.4	8.7	100.0
	1930	2.0	7.5	24.8	18.6	25.3	10.8	11.0	100.0
	1935	2.3	7.9	24.1	18.4	24.6	10.6	12.1	100.0
Central Kansas	1920	.5	2.3	17.7	16.8	39.1	16.5	7.1	100.0
	1925	.6	2.3	16.7	17.3	40.6	16.3	6.2	100.0
	1930	.6	2.1	14.0	15.1	40.2	20.4	7.6	100.0
	1935	.7	2.4	14.6	14.3	38.7	20.7	8.6	100.0
Western Kansas	1920	0	.2	2.9	2.1	21.9	28.5	44.4	100.0
	1925	.1	.3	3.1	2.3	23.9	31.7	38.6	100.0
	1930	.1	.3	2.6	1.9	20.6	33.4	41.1	100.0
	1935	.1	.3	3.0	1.7	20.2	32.5	42.2	100.0
State	1920	.8	3.4	16.0	12.8	29.4	18.2	19.4	100.0
	1925	.9	3.6	16.0	12.9	30.3	19.1	17.2	100.0
	1930	.9	3.1	13.5	11.8	29.4	21.8	19.5	100.0
	1935	1.0	3.4	13.6	11.4	28.3	21.5	20.8	100.0

Source: Calculated from United States census data.

Percentages based on numbers of farms tend to overemphasize the importance of small farms. For this reason, the percentage of farm land by size groups from 1920 to 1935 is shown in table 3. In all three sections of the State there is an indication of the increasing importance of the size groups larger than 500 acres. Some explanation should be given for western Kansas. In this section the 1920 figures for farms of 1,000 acres or more contain a larger percentage of pasture land than for later years. If a ranch was divided and more acres used for plow land, this might cause a decrease in percentage of land in the larger size group and an increase in one or more smaller size groups. In this way, trends become more difficult to interpret correctly.

TABLE 4.—*Average size of farm operated by 85 identical farmers and percentage of farmers reporting changes in the size of their farms, by number of crop acres operated, southwestern Kansas, 1931 and 1937*

Number of crop acres operated, 1937	Number of farmers	Acreage per farm		Percent reporting		
		1931	1937	Increase	Decrease	No change
Less than 300 acres	9	605	719	11	45	44
300 to 499 acres	21	675	630	14	33	53
500 to 699 acres	20	803	755	30	20	50
700 to 899 acres	12	838	1,111	75	8	17
900 acres or more	23	1,400	1,641	65	13	22
All sizes	85	917	1,011	40	22	38

Source: H. L. Stewart, Changes on Wheat Farms in Southwestern Kansas, 1931–37. Bureau of Agricultural Economics in cooperation with the Kansas Agricultural Experiment Station, June 1940 (mimeographed).

Table 4 shows the trend in size of 85 farms from 1931 to 1937. The average size of these farms increased from 917 acres in 1931 to 1,011 in 1937. The tendency to increase in size was more pronounced for farms greater than 500 acres than for farms less than this size.

MECHANIZATION ON THE FARM

A portion of the increase in size of farms and decrease in farm population has been attributed to mechanization on the farm. The introduction and increased use of tractors may be used as an index of the increased use of farm machinery. Table 5 shows the increase in farm tractors from 1915 to 1939. During the early part of the period the increase was most pronounced in central Kansas. In certain periods, as for example 1925 to 1930, the increase was spectacular in western Kansas. Since 1933 the increase in eastern Kansas has been more rapid than in either central or western Kansas. This has been due partly to types of tractors more adapted to small farms. The greater number of tractors, together with small combines, was responsible partly for the shift from corn to wheat in eastern Kansas. However, better relative yields of wheat were a fundamental factor and more wheat tended to promote mechanization. In central and western Kansas the number of tractors was already large by 1930 and the following years of low income tended to retard further increases. Incomes in central Kansas improved considerably after 1932 and another period of tractor expansion occurred.

TABLE 5.—*Number of tractors in Kansas, by sections, 1915–39*

[In thousands]

Year	Eastern Kansas	Central Kansas	Western Kansas	The State
1915	1.0	1.1	0.4	2.5
1916	1.3	1.8	.8	3.9
1917	1.1	2.4	1.0	4.5
1918	1.4	2.9	1.1	5.4
1919	2.7	4.6	1.4	8.7
1920	5.0	7.4	2.0	14.4
1921	6.4	9.8	3.1	19.3
1922	7.1	10.8	3.8	21.7
1923	7.6	12.2	4.3	24.1
1924	7.6	12.8	4.6	25.0
1925	7.8	13.2	5.2	26.2
1926	10.0	16.1	6.8	33.9
1927	10.5	18.1	9.5	38.1
1928	12.0	23.1	10.9	46.0
1929	13.2	28.0	12.4	53.6
1930	12.4	28.4	12.8	53.6
1931	13.2	28.8	14.5	56.5
1932	12.1	28.2	14.6	54.9
1933	9.7	26.3	13.8	49.8
1934	10.6	27.7	15.1	53.4
1935	13.3	29.8	14.6	57.7
1936	16.6	32.7	14.6	63.9
1937	21.6	36.8	16.3	74.7
1938	25.3	41.1	15.9	[1] 82.3
1939	27.1	42.3	16.4	85.8

[1] Ford county was estimated.

Source: Reports of the Kansas State Board of Agriculture, except for 1937, 1938, and 1939, which were secured from the State commission of revenue and taxation.

TABLE 6.—*Number of horses and mules in Kansas, by sections, 1915–39*

[In thousands]

Year	Eastern Kansas	Central Kansas	Western Kansas	The State
1915	525	598	217	1,340
1916	513	601	238	1,352
1917	491	578	251	1,320
1918	469	557	255	1,281
1919	474	570	264	1,308
1920	456	549	269	1,274
1921	449	541	272	1,262
1922	448	528	278	1,254
1923	425	514	282	1,221
1924	394	484	266	1,144
1925	387	464	257	1,108
1926	377	447	236	1,060
1927	362	423	206	991
1928	348	384	184	916
1929	332	349	165	846
1930	313	317	139	769
1931	302	305	124	731
1932	287	289	114	690
1933	283	277	110	670
1934	276	269	103	648
1935	267	252	90	609
1936	249	227	70	546
1937	230	204	61	495
1938	212	172	51	435
1939	205	151	45	401

Source: Reports of the Kansas State Board of Agriculture, except for 1937, 1938, and 1939, which represent estimates based on numbers reported by the State Commission of Revenue and Taxation.

Another side of the picture is shown by table 6, which gives the number of horses and mules from 1915 to 1939. The number for the State as a whole is less than one-third the number 25 years ago. The extremely small number in central and western Kansas is significant.

Some indication of the increased rate of doing field work with tractor-drawn implements compared with horse-drawn implements is given by table 7. In some cases new implements are now in use which cannot be compared directly with horse-drawn equipment. Some increase in saving of time over the 1931 rates given in table 7 may be possible with the more widespread use of rubber-tired tractors and implements.

TABLE 7.—*Rates of doing field work for typical operations used in wheat production in southwestern Kansas, 1918 and 1931*

Kind of work	Horse-drawn implements, 1918			Tractor-drawn implements, 1931	
	Size	Horses	Rate for 10 hours	Size	Rate for 10 hours
		Number	*Acres*		*Acres*
Plowing	2-bottom 14-inch	5	4.5	2-bottom 14-inch	8.5
	2-bottom 14-inch	6	5.0	3-bottom 14-inch	12.5
				4-bottom 14-inch	16.5
				5-bottom 14-inch	20.6
Listing	1-row	4	8.0	2-row	23.0
	2-row	6	15.0	3-row	34.0
				5-row	56.0
Single disk	7-foot	4	10.0	---	---
	8-foot	6	15.0		
Tandem disk	---	---	---	7- to 8-foot	25.0
				9- to 10-foot	31.0
One-way disk plow	---	---	---	7- to 8-foot	27.0
				9- to 10-foot	32.0
				18- to 20-foot	54.0
Spike-tooth harrow	10- to 12-foot	4	20.0	20-foot	64.0
	12- to 16-foot	6	30.0	25-foot	69.0
				30-foot	86.0
Spring-tooth harrow	---	---	---	16-foot	48.0
Drill	8-foot	4	15.0	11-foot	34.0
	11-foot	6	25.0	12- to 14-foot	45.0
				16- to 19-foot	51.0
				21- to 23-foot	67.0
				24- to 27-foot	82.0
				32- to 37-foot	99.0
Heading and stacking	10- to 12-foot	10	30.0	---	---
Combining	---	---	---	10- to 12-foot	29.0
				14- to 16-foot	36.0
				20-foot	46.0

CROP YIELDS AND THE WEATHER

Any consideration of the causes of changes in Kansas farm population should be supplemented by an examination of crop yields, particularly as affected by the weather. In western Kansas where the recent losses of rural population have been the greatest, wheat was the outastanding source of income. It is also important in other sections of Kansas. Table 8 shows wheat yields from 1915 to 1939. In western Kansas yields were fair during most of the 1920–30 decade, particularly during the latter year. This was a period of expansion in rural population. After 1932, yields were extremely poor. During these years rural population decreased.

TABLE 8.—*Yield of wheat per acre seeded in Kansas, by sections, 1915–39*

[In bushels]

Year	Eastern Kansas	Central Kansas	Western Kansas	The State	Year	Eastern Kansas	Central Kansas	Western Kansas	The State
1915	8.8	9.8	11.5	10.1	1928	16.3	16.0	12.4	14.7
1916	11.3	11.1	12.3	11.4	1929	8.8	10.3	14.0	11.6
1917	14.9	4.3	1.1	4.3	1930	14.6	13.8	11.8	13.0
1918	20.4	9.6	2.9	9.4	1931	21.3	20.4	17.6	19.2
1919	16.4	11.7	11.1	12.6	1932	12.5	12.0	6.5	9.7
1920	15.1	12.8	13.1	13.3	1933	15.7	7.0	1.8	5.3
1921	13.2	11.9	8.8	11.2	1934	15.7	9.6	2.8	7.1
1922	13.4	9.5	7.5	9.5	1935	11.9	6.8	1.1	5.1
1923	9.5	8.1	2.5	6.6	1936	14.8	12.2	4.6	9.5
1924	14.3	16.5	14.6	15.6	1937	16.2	12.9	2.6	9.2
1925	12.9	6.6	6.6	7.1	1938	13.0	9.2	6.8	9.0
1926	18.6	14.8	10.6	13.5	1939	15.6	9.7	3.1	8.0
1927	12.9	12.8	3.1	9.2					

Source: Calculated from reports of the Kansas State Board of Agriculture.

TABLE 9.—*Yield of corn per acre in Kansas, by sections, 1915–38*

[In bushels]

Year	Eastern Kansas	Central Kansas	Western Kansas	The State	Year	Eastern Kansas	Central Kansas	Western Kansas	The State
1915	28.3	34.9	27.9	31.4	1927	33.8	32.3	19.3	30.0
1916	10.5	8.3	5.8	8.9	1928	28.9	28.8	21.3	27.0
1917	20.8	9.0	3.6	11.6	1929	16.9	17.5	15.3	16.9
1918	10.6	5.9	4.1	7.2	1930	9.4	11.6	17.6	11.6
1919	18.2	12.3	15.8	15.1	1931	21.8	15.2	15.4	17.9
1920	32.4	22.7	18.9	25.8	1932	27.6	18.0	8.8	19.2
1921	27.3	18.5	16.6	21.8	1933	16.9	7.6	8.1	11.0
1922	22.2	17.3	15.3	18.8	1934	3.4	1.4	.8	2.1
1923	20.9	18.3	26.7	20.9	1935	11.5	4.8	1.9	6.5
1924	29.4	18.3	16.4	22.5	1936	3.0	2.0	1.8	2.4
1925	23.2	11.9	9.6	16.0	1937	16.2	5.2	1.5	9.8
1926	17.6	5.6	2.8	10.3	1938	25.1	11.8	3.6	18.4

Source: Calculated from reports of the Kansas State Board of Agriculture.

Table 9 shows yields of corn. Since corn is relatively unimportant toward the western part of the State, yields are less important from the standpoint of income. The yields in eastern Kansas show several near failures since 1933. The better relative yields of wheat may be noted by comparison with table 8.

TABLE 10.—*Precipitation at selected stations in Kansas and for the State as a whole, 1915–39*

[In inches]

Year	Dodge City		Wichita		Leavenworth		The State	
	September, October, November	Total	September, October, November	Total	June, July, August	Total	Growing season April to September	Total
1915	4.68	28.75	6.74	41.23	15.21	41.96	27.57	40.77
1916	1.97	14.35	6.11	29.62	8.94	36.78	14.71	23.84
1917	1.01	13.06	1.05	16.11	10.15	28.04	14.91	19.60
1918	4.24	19.58	11.40	38.56	6.44	34.55	13.35	27.60
1919	3.13	13.70	3.86	22.98	14.41	37.07	14.90	25.65
1920	8.05	22.97	9.59	29.95	13.35	34.92	16.30	26.65
1921	1.76	17.51	4.57	23.37	14.37	38.14	17.15	24.19
1922	3.24	23.61	9.94	41.94	10.06	38.73	17.56	29.01
1923	6.85	24.34	10.04	35.28	13.50	32.06	19.91	31.88
1924	3.64	19.49	5.01	22.73	13.76	32.42	14.29	24.23
1925	7.58	26.21	7.40	23.95	14.64	33.84	16.04	25.08
1926	4.47	19.99	12.32	30.18	9.57	27.33	11.63	24.80
1927	3.15	25.10	7.21	24.85	10.95	38.58	22.81	32.40
1928	6.67	27.77	7.51	37.53	13.68	35.68	20.75	33.40
1929	5.99	21.90	5.80	34.84	11.09	40.50	17.76	27.96
1930	8.71	19.14	10.89	26.01	9.83	33.02	15.90	26.87
1931	2.57	15.75	11.98	29.36	9.67	43.78	13.04	25.90
1932	3.21	17.71	1.84	23.69	13.25	30.40	16.23	23.76
1933	2.66	18.66	2.98	21.81	15.04	34.30	15.10	22.18
1934	4.53	11.50	9.04	24.15	4.65	27.52	9.27	20.02
1935	3.84	15.09	10.51	36.23	12.27	47.07	17.62	28.47
1936	2.81	14.17	8.62	15.58	1.32	24.01	9.23	18.31
1937	2.05	12.63	3.67	25.64	10.89	25.39	12.62	20.88
1938	2.98	19.43	4.83	32.81	17.10	33.72	19.48	27.27
1939	.80	12.98	2.25	28.64	11.96	26.89	13.80	20.08

Source: Climatological data, Kansas section. U. S. Department of Commerce, Weather Bureau.

In table 10 the precipitation from 1915 to 1939 is shown for selected stations. The averages for months of outstanding importance for particular crops are indicated. For example, in western Kansas the yield of wheat in most years is greatly affected by the preceding fall rainfall. In 1930 the rainfall at Dodge City in September, October, and November was 8.71 inches and the wheat yield in 1931 in western Kansas was 17.6 bushels. In 1931 the fall rainfall during these 3 months at Dodge City was 2.57 inches and the wheat yield in 1932 in western Kansas was 6.5 bushels. Attention is called to the low fall rainfall during many years of the 1930–40 decade.

Since corn has been relatively more important in eastern Kansas than in other sections, the rainfall for June, July, and August is shown for Leavenworth. Rainfall for these months for the years 1934 and 1936 should be compared with corn yields for the respective years. While these weather comparisons are general in nature, they tend to emphasize the importance of rainfall in connection with crop yields and rural welfare.

SUMMARY

1. Kansas population showed a decline from 1930 to 1940 for the first decade during the history of the State. The heaviest loss was in the rural population of western Kansas.
2. Rural population in Kansas showed little trend for the State as a whole from 1890 to 1930 but the tendency was downward. In past years losses in eastern counties were partly compensated by gains in counties farther west and in urban gains. The western third of the State showed an increase in rural population from 1910 to 1930.
3. Indications are that decreases in rural population from 1930 to 1940 caused some out-of-State migration.
4. It seems probable that some decrease in population has arisen as a result of larger farms made possible by rapid mechanization. The increase in mechanization is indicated by increased numbers of tractors and decreased numbers of horses and mules.
5. The tendency for rural population to be displaced by increasing size of farm has been partly compensated by increased numbers of self-sufficing and part-time farms. However, the greatest increases in size of farm have been in central and western Kansas, particularly the latter, and the greatest increase in numbers of small farms has been in eastern Kansas.
6. A more fundamental cause of the loss in rural population in the past decade in western Kansas was the small opportunity for success in farming. This condition is suggested by crop yields and weather data.
7. Many contributing factors to the general situation have not been considered.

The Chairman. The committee will stand adjourned.

(Thereupon, at 4:45 p. m., the hearing was concluded.)

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